The Nation.

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The Week.

THE sole interest felt by the general public in the meeting of the National League of Republican Clubs at Cleveland last week was as to the position which it would take on the silver question. Being the only national gathering of representatives of the party to occur before the meeting of the Presidential convention next summer, there was naturally much curiosity as to its attitude towards the burning issue of the day. President Tracy, in his opening address, dwelt upon the importance of the platform which the convention should adopt, characterizing the clubs as "the positive and active force of the last campaign," and declaring that "our conventions are the opening guns of every campaign." The convention lacked the courage to live up to this forecast of its duty. Committees, and sub-committees, and sub-sub-committees grappled with the matter of the platform for days. Free-coinage and sound-money resolutions were discussed for hours without action. Then the idea of an address to the people was suggested, which should "go for" the Democratic Administration, charge it with "incompetency and insincerity," and pronounce "every page of its history dark with failure." Finally, somebody pointed out that a section of the constitution of the League provides that it "shall not in any manner endeavor to influence the action of any national, State, county, or municipal convention," and proposed as the easiest way of escape from difficulties the adoption of a resolution reciting this clause, and referring all resolutions in relation to public questions to the Republican National Convention of 1896. Of course, this "dodges" the silver issue. It does so, too, in a most transparent way. This is the eighth year of the organization, and nobody ever before suggested that it had no right to express any views on public questions. On the contrary, it has always adopted a platform which covered the whole political field. Last year's convention of the Leaguers was held at Denver, and the committee on resolutions made a long report, one plank of which was devoted to the tariff and another to the silver question. Indeed, the adoption of a platform has always been regarded as a sort of necessity, to justify the coming together of delegates from all parts of the country. Nevertheless, the "dodge" is really a great victory for the cause of sound money. This becomes plain when we compare the refusal of this year's convention to say a word in favor of silver, with the plank adopted last summer at the demand of delegates from the silver States and with their hearty endorsement.

While the attitude of the Republicans towards the silver and tariff questions in their next national convention remains doubtful, one feature of the platform may be regarded as already settled. The sectional issue will for the first time be omitted, and no demand will be made for federal interference in State elections. The change that has come over the party in this respect is most striking. The federal election laws were repealed by the last Congress, and prominent Republican newspapers already admit that it was a fortunate thing for the country. No party organ was more emphatic and urgent in advocating force bills only a few years ago than the Indianapolis *Journal*, and yet it now confesses that it "is inclined to believe that, under the circumstances, the repeal of the so-called but unjustly called 'force bill' was judicious." Moreover, it declares that it "is not in favor at this time of reënacting the law, or of reviving the issue further than may be done by prosecuting an educational campaign and persistently urging the paramount duty and vital necessity of securing fair and honest elections." Comparatively few Republican newspapers have yet advanced far enough to admit that the action of the last Democratic Congress in this matter was commendable, but we do not know of one which any longer professes to lament the repeal of the obnoxious statutes. It will be an immense gain for the country to have this old sectional issue formally dropped.

One agency that is working quietly but effectively in favor of sound money at the South is the country press. National attention is attracted by the attitude of the most prominent daily newspapers, like the Louisville *Courier-Journal* in Kentucky, the Montgomery *Advertiser* in Alabama, and the Galveston *News* in Texas, but nobody learns except by accident of the instruction given their readers by the host of small weeklies published in every State. A recent issue of the Bainbridge (Ga.) *Democrat* contains seven editorial paragraphs and three articles devoted to the exposition of correct views on the silver question. This is not an exceptional case. The Atlanta *Journal* prints almost every day extracts from other country weeklies in Georgia that take the same position. Many of these rural editors put the case against free coinage with great force, and in just the way best suited to affect their readers. A recent analysis of the attitude of these local papers in Alabama showed that a decided majority were on the right side; and in other States as well, editors who have been on the fence are now coming out against the silver craze. No publications are read more carefully than these country weeklies, and when the bulk of them are on the sound-money side, it will not be long before the majority of the voters will be found there also.

The marked advance in the price of staple commodities cannot be explained upon the theory of the silver advocates. According to that theory, nothing can cause such an advance but an addition to the quantity of money. But there has been no such addition, and yet prices have materially advanced. Moreover, this advance accompanies a greatly increased business activity, which should also require much more money to carry it on. But, as there is no more money, according to the silver theory the demand for what exists ought to depress prices. It cannot be denied that if prices had declined below their recent low level, a state of desperation might have been occasioned in the minds of farmers, who always think a great deal more of the prices obtained for what they sell than of the prices they pay for what they buy. In their desperation they might have been led to favor silver money or fiat money. Fortunately this dangerous point has been passed, and the rise in prices means the decline of the cause of free-silver coinage.

The Trenton *Gazette* last week had a carefully prepared and able editorial on the way the pottery industry of the United States had been "hard hit by the Gorman tariff." It was very unpleasant for a paper so largely read by working potters to have to tell them such a disagreeable truth, and to remind them of the black outlook before them, but the conscientious editor must not shirk a plain duty. However, on the next page a news item tended somewhat to reassure the depressed potter. From it he learned that, as a consequence of being hard hit, his wages had been advanced 25 per cent. So unacquainted were he and his fellows with the nature and evidences of tariff ruin that they were reported to be "well satisfied," and disposed to regard the result of their negotiations with their employers as "one of the greatest victories" which they ever secured. Certain it is that McKinley never hit them in this way. He put the tariff up for them, but the employers made up for that by putting their wages down. In fact, an advance of wages at the Trenton potteries is something for which the oldest inhabitant can scarcely find a parallel. For many years, at least, whether the tariff went up or down, wages at Trenton have had but one course, and that was downward. The potters will be tempted to pray that some ignorant tariff-tinker may come along and hit them hard again.

Nothing is more remarkable about the many advances in wages reported from

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all parts of the country, than the cheerfulness and spontaneity with which they are made by employers. The Commissioner of Labor, Mr. Wright, remarked on this fact some weeks ago, before it had attained anything like its present distinctness. It is safe to say that no other like period of our industrial history ever witnessed so many voluntary advances in wages. There have been some strikes and threatened strikes, but for the most part the change has come about through the simple announcement of employers that business had improved sufficiently to enable them to mark up wages 10, 20, 30 per cent. The disastrous effect of this state of things on the high-tariff reasoners is evident from their painful wriggling to explain it away. But it carries its lesson also to another class. What have the agitators and the socialists, with their bogey representation of the grasping capitalist, the iron law of wages, and social class arrayed against social class in deadly struggle—what have they to say about these unforced concessions of higher wages? Something must be wrong with the theory of soulless corporations and grinding employers, if so many of them are found glad to jump at the chance of giving their work-people a larger share of the profits of business. What possible labor legislation could secure for employees such advances in wages as have come to so many thousands of them during the past few weeks, purely under the operations of the laws of trade and through the interest of employers in the welfare of their workers? Agitators go to work the wrong way. They are like the income-taxers, who rail at the miserly millionaires at the very time the said misers are giving away for public uses vastly larger sums than could be wrung from them by any conceivable system of taxation.

The silly-season war with Spain over the Mora claim, which enterprising Washington correspondents had Secretary Olney waging a week ago, has already smoothed its wrinkled front. What the Secretary appears to have done is once more to urge Spain to pay a claim which her Government has repeatedly acknowledged to be just and has more than once promised to pay. Every new Secretary of State has done that for years. Secretary Fish began it, and all of his successors have taken their turn at it. Secretary Bayard in 1886 succeeded in getting a direct promise from the Spanish Government to pay $1,500,000, and the incident was then thought to be closed. But the Cortes have steadily refused to vote the money, and the Government has professed itself helpless. Mr. Blaine sent some very urgent instructions on the subject to Minister Palmer, in 1888, calculated to bring the Spaniards to time. But Mr. Palmer, our Minister to Spain, politely and "unofficially" pointed out to Mr. Blaine several egregious blunders in his letter of instructions, which he had used his discretion not to act upon at once, and which appears never to have been acted upon, as Mr. Blaine lost all interest in the case from that day on, so far as the published correspondence shows. Mr. Foster took the matter up, and so did Mr. Gresham, but neither of them was able to make any headway with the polite but stolid Spaniard. Secretary Olney may have better luck, owing to the Cuban revolution and Spain's especial desire at this time to be on the best of terms with this country. Superficially, the case is not unlike that of our own Congress scornfully refusing to pay the $425,000 Bering Sea damages which our Government had promised; but there is the added exasperation of ten years' delay on the part of Spain, and of the fact that any ministry could no doubt force the Cortes to vote the money if they were in earnest about it.

Secretary Olney has rendered a service to good morals and the cause of peace by defining the duties of citizens towards foreign powers with which we are at peace. The letter was written in answer to a request for information addressed to the Department of State by the cashier of a bank in Texas, who wanted to know whether there was any law against the bank's becoming the depositary of funds subscribed for aid to the cause of Cuban independence, and also what were the duties of American citizens in the premises from a moral point of view. The Secretary's reply is that there is no adjudicated case and no particular law touching the duties of bankers in receiving money known to be intended for the promotion of insurrection in foreign countries, but that the general duties of citizens toward nations with which we are at peace have been judicially declared by the Supreme Court. Those duties are that the citizen is bound to be at war with any country that the Government is at war with, and is equally bound to be at peace with any country that the Government is at peace with. This principle, says the court, "lies at the foundation of all government, as there could be no social order or peaceful relations between the citizens of different countries without it." There could not be a sounder maxim. When a rebellion becomes so important that the Government of another nation accords to it belligerent rights, a new set of rules comes into play. These are very strictly defined by law, but they need not be now considered, since belligerency has not been conceded to the Cuban rebels. There is always a lot of uneasy and adventurous spirits "who breathe short-winded accents of new broils," and are always spoiling for a fight in Cuba, Mexico, Central America, or some other place. None of this class will be deterred by any views that may be entertained by Secretary Olney or by the Supreme Court, but sober-minded and responsible citizens, like the cashier of the Waco bank, will everywhere be glad that a clear and authoritative rule of action touching their duties has been laid down.

The dispensary law in South Carolina fares worse and worse. Judge Simonton's decision in the Federal Court, that liquors might be brought into the State from outside for personal use, was a serious blow. The failure to secure punishment of offenders against the law in the State courts at Charleston because grand juries will not indict, shows the strength of public sentiment against the system in the larger places. Worst of all, the dispensary does not "pay," for the great profits promised went far to reconcile the people to a trial of the experiment. Tillman figured out that it ought to net the State half a million the first year and a whole million the second. This is the second year, and the report for the last quarter makes the actual earnings for the three months only $5,220, which is less than one-tenth of the profits of the license system that formerly existed. Of course the bitter factional feeling which prevails in the State has prevented so fair a trial of the dispensary as might have been possible under other circumstances, but the indications are that, under the most favorable conditions, it would have fallen far short of the promises made for it. The failure in South Carolina is likely to make other States shy of trying the experiment.

Quay has challenged the Republican party of Pennsylvania to an open contest as to whether he shall be recognized as its absolute dictator. Having bossed the Legislature, he now announces his candidacy for chairman of the State committee. The present incumbent has made an excellent record, and is entitled to reëlection. But he is a member of Gov. Hastings's administration, and as Quay has quarrelled with the executive, the boss insists that the Governor's supporter must be "turned down." The issue is made as sharply and clearly as possible. It is simply whether Quay shall be invested with supreme control of the organization. The opponents of the boss show more readiness to fight than usual, and they seem stronger than ever before. Indeed, the surface indications at the start are most unfavorable to Quay. But he has wonderful resources for such a struggle, and he has won more than once when public sentiment in his party was strongly against him. Hitherto, however, he has usually kept more or less under cover, and he loses certain advantages when he makes the contest in an open field. If he does succeed, in the face of all the disadvantages that confront him, his victory will mark the lowest depth that Pennsylvania politics has reached.

The sentence of Inspector McLaughlin, as Judge Barrett said, was imposed with

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full regard for clemency. In less than two years he will be free from prison, and, considering his offences, incarceration for that period is a very mild punishment. It is true that his conviction involves loss of office and salary, as well as of such tatters of reputation as he may have had among his companions. But the same thing is true of defaulting bank-tellers and embezzlers generally. The statute prescribes a penalty for their offences, and the penalty is undoubtedly fixed with reference to the conditions under which the offence is committed. It cannot safely be maintained that when a man enjoying a good income in a responsible position violates his trust, his loss of reputation and money should be considered as in any way atoning for his fault. The mischief of such crimes lies in their perpetration without the excuse of want. When a man who is homeless and penniless commits a larceny, he may be said to do it to satisfy a pressing want, and to a certain degree to deserve mercy. The punishment is graduated according to the temptation. So of homicide: if committed in the heat of passion or under great provocation, the law properly affixes a less severe punishment than when there is "malice aforethought." Now there is no such sudden and urgent temptation to commit extortion as to make it just to impose a light penalty upon those who are guilty of it. And we cannot take very seriously Judge Barrett's observations upon the forfeiture of a great and honorable office, gained by McLaughlin "by twenty-five years of undoubtedly valuable service in various phases of duty." We know too well the manner in which "honorable office" has been gained in our police force to be altogether free from doubt as to the value of the services which have gained it.

On another account Judge Barrett's clemency seems to us to be uncalled for. The defence of McLaughlin was conducted in such a manner as to make it altogether equitable to impose the severest penalty allowed by the law. The difficulties to be encountered by the prosecution were enormous, and few persons probably believed that it would be possible to get a jury which would be unanimous for conviction. We presume that the counsel for the defendant did no more than their professional duty required, but it is undoubtedly true that the public believed that McLaughlin would resort to every possible expedient to escape justice. The delay and expense caused by this desperate defence were very great, and a few such trials would block the whole administration of the criminal law. There is simply not time enough to try all those who are indicted, if they are going to protract trials to such a length. In a fair trial of strength men admire the courage and spirit of a defeated antagonist and feel disposed to treat him generously. But there is no parallel between such cases and that of a prisoner contending for his liberty. Where the prisoner has money to spend and influence to exert, it is the people who struggle at a disadvantage. Every technicality, according to our practice, is made use of against their case, and legal errors can hardly be made except by them. Considering the manner in which McLaughlin's defence was conducted, it seems like encouraging objectionable methods to impose a light sentence.

It was in 1886 that Mr. Gladstone gave the Liberal party the Irish home-rule programme; it was in 1887 that Mr. Cleveland gave the Democratic party the tariff-reform programme. How do the results achieved by the greatest political genius of his century compare with those brought about by the dull and inexperienced man whom the accident of an accident made the head of his party? Mr. Gladstone has not been able to enact a line of his programme into law. For all that the statute-books have to show, the ten years' agitation for home-rule might as well have been conducted in the moon as in England. A good part of Mr. Cleveland's programme is now the law of the land. It is not such a law as he would have had, or as his party was bound to give, but it is a law which is winning its way into popular favor with great rapidity, which thousands of Republican business men secretly delight in, and the main features of which its bitterest opponents now admit they dare not promise to repeal. Defective as these results confessedly are, beside Mr. Gladstone's barren labors for home-rule they seem like a great success. Strange how impetuous and fine-fibred statesmanship spends itself in vain, while incompetency blunders along its heavy way to distinct achievement!

The upsetting of the ministry in England is likely to encourage the bimetallists to believe that the Conservative Liberal-Unionist Government will favor an international conference and all that that implies. This does not by any means follow. The Liberal-Unionists gave notice to the Conservatives some time ago that they would have no part in a government that supported bimetallism. The most influential man in the Unionist ranks on the financial side is Mr. Goschen, and he has steadfastly opposed any change in the English standard, although favoring bimetallism for other countries. He took this position in the conference of 1878, and has never swerved from it. Because he was favorable to an international agreement to which all countries except Great Britain should belong, he has been reckoned as a bimetallist, but he would not be counted as such in any group where the coöperation of England was deemed essential. Germany considers the coöperation of England indispensable. It is still an open question whether Germany will issue a call. The Imperial Chancellor said some weeks ago that he would take the necessary steps to summon a conference as soon as he had obtained the approval of "all" the federal States. Since that time both Würtemberg and Baden have decided against it.

The attitude of the United States, if a conference should be called, has been brought in question. The language of the law authorizes the President to act whenever a conference is called "with a view to secure internationally a fixity of relative value between gold and silver as money by means of a common ratio between those metals, with free mintage at such ratio." A conference called, as the last one was, merely to see if a larger use of silver could be injected into the currencies of the world, would not be the kind of conference which this law contemplates. The President would be justified in sending delegates to a conference in the absence of any law, or (following the Harrison precedent) in calling a conference without any law; but when a specific law has been passed on the subject, he is bound to observe it. The 16-to-1 silverites in the United States would certainly blame the President if he should transcend the law in this particular. It is pretty certain, too, that he has no inclination to outrun the law. Therefore, any call for a conference by Germany, issued before the assembling of Congress, must be a call for the fixing of a ratio and for unlimited coinage of both metals at that ratio. And to this end Germany must come to the conference with a programme and must take the lead in advocating it. It will be a great relief, no doubt, to our delegates to have the onus of leadership resting on somebody else.

Russia's transaction in the matter of the Chinese loan is one of the most singular among recent political developments. In effect, the operation seems to have been that the Russian Government, wishing to maintain either actual or pretended close relations with its Oriental neighbor, made a bid for the privilege of serving China with its £16,000,000 sterling, which China did not feel at liberty to reject. But Russia itself neither had the requisite money nor the means of raising it directly. Hence it had recourse to a Continental friend with plenty of idle money and a sentimental attachment to the Russian Government. France virtually accepts this note-of-hand of China, endorsed by Russia, and, as occasionally happens in private life, the endorser of the note takes all the thanks and credit, and its accepter all the risk. This may be fairly called a novelty in international finance. England has now and then resorted to a somewhat similar procedure, but only in cases where a colony virtually leaned on the home Government for financial help.

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THE GOVERNMENT REVENUE.

PERHAPS the most striking of all the symptoms of the revival of business confidence is furnished by the condition of the United States Treasury. It is evident that the deficiency in revenue for the year just closing will be not far from $50,000,000, and the expenditure is still considerably greater than the receipts. Moreover, the revenue counted upon has been reduced by some $30,000,000, the amount estimated to be produced by the income tax. Nevertheless the gold reserve in the Treasury is to-day probably $101,000,000. There appears to be no difficulty in maintaining this reserve, and it seems probable that it may be considerably increased when the export of this year's crops begins. Considering the prolonged deficiency in receipts, this condition of affairs is remarkable, and the contrast between the present state of the Treasury and that of a few months ago is amazing.

It is true that the Government has borrowed considerably more than the amount of the deficiency. The loan effected in November brought in about $60,000,000, and the last loan added some $65,000,000, so that the condition of the Treasury ought to be a very easy one. But, all things considered, it ought to have been easy five months ago. The deficit in revenue was less then than now, and the product of the income tax was reckoned a safe asset. Nevertheless, the Government was then within a few days of suspension of gold payments, while now, although it is apparently no better off, it holds its full gold reserve of $100,000,000, and has other cash assets in the Treasury amounting to almost as much more.

The London *Economist* inclines to take a rather dark view of this situation. It asserts that the estimated expenditure for the coming year is greater than for this, that no new taxes can be imposed before next December, unless a special session of Congress is called, and that even then the hostile majority in Congress may refuse to vote any new taxes. Hence, it argues, for many months to come the Treasury may have to go on drawing on its cash balance in order to cover the current expenditure. But if that process is to continue for any length of time, doubts as to the ability of the Treasury to maintain gold payments are sure to revive. Furthermore, the *Economist* argues, this apprehension cannot be allayed by a new loan, because no new loan can be made until the reserve is actually encroached upon, and the Government has no authority to borrow money for the ordinary administrative expenditure.

It is surprising to read arguments of so feeble a character in a journal having the reputation of the *Economist*. As to new loans, they certainly will not be needed until the gold reserve is actually encroached upon, and when that time comes, the loans can be effected. The fallacy about using up the reserve in paying the expenses of the Government has been exposed too often to deserve further refutation. There will be no material increase in expenditure the coming year. The problem, therefore, is simply this: the United States Treasury has during this fiscal year paid out $50,000,000 more than its income, but has increased its cash assets, by borrowing, to the amount of, say, $125,000,000. It will begin the coming year, therefore, with perhaps $75,000,000 more cash than it had a year ago. If the coming year were to be as lean as the one that is just closing, the Treasury would still be able to go through it and emerge with a balance $25,000,000 greater than it had a year ago. It is evident that the process of "drawing on its cash balance" is one that can be regarded without apprehension for some time to come; but only upon one condition.

That condition is the appearance or the prospect of improving revenue. If the revenue continues to shrink, it will certainly arouse anxiety. But what is the outlook for revenue? Upon what theory is it maintained that the revenue of the Government during the coming year is to be no greater than during this year? The volume of business throughout the country, judging from the returns of the clearing-houses and railroads, which are the best evidence we have, was last year perhaps not more than four-fifths, certainly not nine-tenths, of its normal volume. But the returns of the clearing-houses for the current weeks show that the business of the country is from 20 to 30 per cent. greater than last year. The earnings of the railroads are already perhaps 10 per cent. greater than last year, and, unless most serious calamities befall the crops, they will this autumn show an even greater increase. The volume of production is in every branch of manufacture steadily, and in some rapidly, enlarging. The number of men employed is very much greater, and the wages paid are higher, than last year. All this means that more things are bought, and the revenue of the Government, which is principally derived from taxes upon such things, is therefore certain to increase. It must not be forgotten that the sugar duties have scarcely yet begun to be productive, and that the revenue from distilled liquors is $12,000,000 or $15,000,000 short of what it is under normal conditions. We cannot here present the details which show that a largely increased revenue is probable, but will specify one single fact as perhaps the most significant of all. The number of immigrants last May was about 49,000; in May, 1894, it was about 33,000. Immigration does not increase unless the country is prospering, and the country cannot prosper without paying more in taxes. It would require an increase in revenue of only 10 per cent. to extinguish the deficit; but an increase of 5 per cent. would extinguish apprehension, and such an increase is beyond question likely to be manifested very soon.

THE ENGLISH SITUATION.

THE first and strongest impression made upon most Americans by the resignation of Lord Rosebery's Government and the almost certain passing of the Liberal party from power for at least some years, will be that of a tremendous and fruitless waste of party energy. It is nine years now since the English Liberals undertook to meet the aspirations of the Irish nation for self-government in local affairs. Under a leader of heroic courage and marvellous activity, they went to defeat on the issue of healing the deadly Irish wound by pacificatory treatment, and then, in 1892, after six years of agitation and hope deferred, came back to power only to find their way blocked by the brute mass of the House of Lords. Now, after three years of vain effort, they leave office without a single act of positive Irish legislation to point to as the fruit of the long and sore struggle.

But only the short-sighted will say that the struggle has naught availed. English political reform moves in ways as mysterious as those of divine Providence, and no one who recalls the manner in which Sir Robert Peel forced his party to repeal the corn laws or Disraeli the Conservatives to pass the Reform Bill of 1867, need despair yet of seeing the Irish cause suddenly spring into new vigor and promise even under a Tory cabinet. It is already clear that Mr. Chamberlain will be a member of that cabinet, and he has had a half-dozen Irish home-rule bills up his sleeve any time these ten years. No one who has marked his shifty course for a decade past would be shocked at the suggestion that he might turn another sharp corner and come out as the original Irish Home-Ruler. In fact, for the Conservatives in general, the advocacy of some measure of Irish local self-government would not now require so instantaneous a somersault as did their taking up the extension of the franchise in 1867, and passing a bill far more radical than the one they had denounced and beaten Mr. Gladstone for bringing forward. Both Lord Salisbury and Mr. Balfour could point to passages in speeches of theirs foreshadowing such a sea change. Of course their home-rule bill would be safe and honorable, of a kind to bind the empire together, and not the mad revolutionary thing that the Gladstonians had affrighted the country with. Fair names and grave excuses could easily be found in plenty if a political exigency should compel the Conservative leaders to take to blessing what they had been banning for ten years.

The thing which, if anything, may be expected to force such action on a Conservative government, is the return of a solidified Irish parliamentary delegation to the position they occupied prior to 1886. In a shrewd and brilliant article in a late number of the *Fortnightly*, written by an Irishman, presumably Mr. Redmond, the way was incisively sketched in

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which the Irish members might again demonstrate the need of doing something for Ireland, if only to keep Parliament from utter breakdown. Despite the new devices of closure and the new powers of the Speaker, it is still possible for fluent and acute Irish members to make the burden of imperial and local business greater than Parliament can stagger under. Day after day and month after month, they can, as before, forcibly remind the Government and the country, in this way, that the consuming desire of the Irish people for control of their own local affairs remains unappeased. It would only be a question of time when something would have to be done to end this intolerable and unworkable situation. A beginning might be made by applying Scotch precedents to Irish difficulties. A grand committee for Scotland already has practically supreme control over all local Scottish legislation. Various proposals to appoint other committees of this kind were made only a few weeks ago in Parliament, and were not unfavorably received by the Conservative leaders. A grand committee for Wales is almost certain to come very soon, and stranger things have happened than that a grand committee for Ireland should come too. With Parliament more and more unequal every year to the vast mass of business thrust upon it, with local self-government in England already given a great extension by recent legislation, and with the tendency clearly visible in Parliament to divide up the work of law-making according to subject and nationality, it would be rash in the extreme to affirm that the Liberal overthrow meant the overthrow of Ireland's hopes.

Another thing which it would be rash to predict is the strength and permanency of the alliance of Liberal Unionists and Conservatives. For the moment that alliance will be made closer than ever before. In speeches before the National Conservative Union on June 14, both Mr. Chamberlain and the Duke of Devonshire made it clear that the Liberal Unionists were now prepared to sink their separate organization in that of the Conservatives. The leaders will no longer refuse, as in 1886, to take office. They hope to found a new united and homogeneous party, neither Liberal nor Conservative, but "national," or something of the kind. The Duke frankly admitted that many serious difficulties stood in the way of complete amalgamation. He would not conceal the fact that "a severe strain would be placed upon many of our most ardent supporters if they found their leaders occupying positions in a Government avowedly Conservative." Nor did he see clearly how the radicals of the Liberal-Unionist following could get on well with the great mass of the Conservative party "averse to change of any kind, and unwilling to acknowledge the existence of the new forces with which we have to deal." But the home-rule terror, he believed, would bind these irreconcilables permanently together. Less interested observers will not believe it. Irish home rule is but a passing phase of constitutional policy; it cannot permanently create and divide parties. It must soon be either settled or shelved, and then the great differences of personal character and political theory which make men and parties radical or conservative will reassert themselves and redraw party lines. The influence which rains from duchesses, and the social prizes which they adjudge, may keep Mr. Chamberlain a contented sharer of Conservative cabinets and dinner-tables, but his great artisan and middle-class following, which has made him what he is, will not have the same sunshine of noble favor to bask in, and will not be so complacent.

INTERNATIONAL INSINCERITY.

THE ceremonies attendant upon the opening of the Kiel canal are supposed to furnish a striking demonstration of international good feeling. So all the correspondents assure us. The occasion marks the beginning of "a new era of peace." Embassies and war-ships from so many foreign countries bespeak a spirit of universal fraternization. The whole celebration is a great tribute to the power of peaceful intercourse between nations, and a veritable triumph of international peace and good will.

A glance beneath the surface, however, will show that there is a great deal of sham and insincerity about all this. In the very gathering of war-vessels there is manifest a spirit the reverse of peace-loving. Each nation sends its biggest ships and heaviest guns, not simply as an act of courtesy, but also as a kind of international showing of teeth. The British navy despatches ten of its most powerful vessels merely as a sample of what it has in reserve, and with the air as of one saying, "Be warned in time, O ye nations, and provoke not the mistress of the seas." French and Russian squadrons, in like manner, put on their ugliest frown lest host William should presume upon the jollification to make too friendly advances. Our own American ships join the fleet with the feeling doubtless animating many an officer and sailor on board that it is time the haughty Europeans learned that there was a rising naval power across the sea which they had better not trifle with. A different result could scarcely be expected from an invitation extended by fire-eating Wilhelm. The affair is very like an appeal to "liquor up" addressed by Alkali Ike to Silverado Bill and Tombstone Tom. Bill and Tom walk up, lay their "guns" and knives on the bar, and tell Ike that they will drink with him, but that it will be a bad day for him if they catch him at any of his tricks.

An especial air of bouffe attaches to the presence of the French and Russians. As lovers of international peace, especially as lovers of Germany, they are truly comic. The French fleet, in fact, could hardly get away at all. The Minister for Foreign Affairs had to answer a shower of interpellations as to what the Government meant by showing courtesy to Germany while Alsace and Lorraine still lie a-bleeding. M. Hanotaux could save himself only by assuring the Chamber that the whole thing was an empty form, and that all true Frenchmen could keep on as before hating the Prussian despoilers and getting ready for a speedy *revanche*. Even so the rage and fury over the thing in some parts of France were great and unconcealed. At Toulon the flags were at half-mast, to show how keenly was felt the national disgrace of even being polite to the hated Germans. The statue of Alsace-Lorraine was draped. Relief was found only in emphasizing the Russian alliance, and in arranging to have the French and Russian fleets enter the canal side by side, as a practical challenge to the Dreibund to come on as soon as they got ready. These intrigues and manœuvres helped to make the spectacle of international courtesy and peace complete and touching.

But the most striking insincerity of all was to be found in the opening of the Kiel canal itself. It is dedicated to "the traffic of the world." Hence its international significance, hence all the rejoicing and glorification. But what do Germany, and France, and the other Continental Powers really think about the traffic of the world? Why, at this very moment, as for twenty years past, they are straining every nerve to fetter and hinder and reduce as far as possible the free commercial intercourse of nations. The really significant figures in Germany are not lordly William and his officers, opening the new canal to commerce, but Kanitz and the Agrarians demanding that the empire be closed to commerce, and the Chancellor on his knees to them. M. Méline and the French protectionists, Cánovas and the Spanish protectionists, Italy with her discriminating duties against France, Belgium now contemplating for the first time a departure from the policy of free trade, Howard Vincent and the "fair-traders" in England—these are the men and this the spirit, that most truly represent the predominant sentiment of the nations to-day about "the traffic of the world." New canals and railroads are all very well if they help *us*, if they carry our goods exclusively; but they at once become objects of horror, demanding new restrictive legislation and suggesting the necessity of war, if they enable a foreigner to sell another dollar's worth to us.

There was, in truth, something more than sentiment, there was a profound principle, in Cobden's linking of free trade with international peace in his historic programme. A commercial war may be the deadliest of all. It certainly may be the meanest and most malicious. When the McKinley tariff threw thousands of workmen in Vienna out of em-

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ployment and into misery, and the *Tribune* gloried over the spectacle like one of Tertullian's saints in heaven exulting in the torments of the damned, we had an object lesson in international malice not easily to be forgotten. An overt act of war could not have aroused baser passions, or been better fitted to inflame international ill-feeling and resentment. But that sort of thing, in kind if not in degree, is all the while happening under exclusive and retaliatory tariff legislation. It cannot be denied that the causes of international friction have been vastly multiplied by the ravages of the protectionist spirit in Europe during the last two decades. The repeal of the reciprocity treaties negotiated under the influence of Cobden's propaganda marked the beginning of a state of commercial war in Europe, which has caused as much international exasperation and almost as much suffering as many an armed conflict that the histories dwell upon as calamitous. Until this proscriptive spirit of commercial hostility and jealousy passes away, or wears itself out through sheer absurdity, you may open as many interoceanic canals as you please, but you cannot persuade sensible people that your talk about their significance for international good feeling and the general love of peace is anything but a bit of transparent insincerity.

THE SEVENTY AND ITS SUCCESSORS.

THE farewell address of the Committee of Seventy is a very modest document, containing as it does the record of a great political revolution. We doubt if many of the handful of earnest reformers who set on foot the meeting in the Madison Square Garden concert-hall on the evening of September 6, 1894, were sanguine enough to hope for anything approaching the remarkable results which followed. They were determined to make an effort to organize the non-partisan sentiment of the city into a movement for the overthrow of Tammany, but there were few indications at the time that they would be successful. The city was well filled with critics then, as it always is at the outset of such undertakings, who were sure nothing could ever come of it, and who were never tired of asking the reformers if they really believed they could accomplish anything. Some of them were at the meeting, and volunteered their profound conviction that it was sheer folly to attempt to defeat such a powerful organization as Tammany Hall with an unorganized mob of reformers who had nothing but sentiment to fight upon.

Yet look at the outcome! Tammany Hall routed and practically excluded from all branches of the city government for three years. The Tammany police bench, with its thugs, liquor-dealers, and semi-criminals, abolished for ever. Two Tammany candidates for the higher courts defeated, and two upright and able men elected in their stead, both going upon the bench free of all political pledges, and without paying an "assessment" to any political organization as the price of their nomination. In addition to these great gains, we have a model Street-Cleaning Department, a model Police Board, and a collection of officials at the head of other branches of the municipal service who, while some of them might be of higher character and ability, are none of them ex-criminals or the ex-companions of criminals.

For all these advances towards genuine reform in municipal government we are indebted to the Committee of Seventy. It is impossible to overestimate the patriotic devotion of the members of this committee to the work placed in their hands. They were all busy men, and every moment which they gave to the public was a sacrifice of the time and energy needed for their private affairs. If the Legislature had been equally patriotic, if it had been its own master rather than Tom Platt's property, the record of the Seventy's work would have been far more impressive and the results far more enduring than they are. We should have been able to add to the list of achievements a thoroughly reformed public-school system and a thoroughly reformed police system. The blame for the failure of these two reforms rests primarily upon Platt and his Republican Senators, but the Democratic Senators are almost equally guilty. They could, by combining with the few anti-Platt Senators, have secured the passage of both measures, but from the beginning to the end of the session they were almost solidly arrayed with the Platt men against all reforms.

So much for the past. The committee's record is a shining one and will hold a proud place in the history of the city. We are unable to say why objection was made at the final meeting to the simple statement of fact regarding Mayor Strong's approval of the bi-partisan police bill. That act was a part of the record, it was a notable fact in the history of the committee's work, and it should be set down with the other facts. Nothing could be more absurd than to imagine that it could be abolished from history by omitting it from the record, or the consequences of it be avoided by calling attention to other facts in the Mayor's administration.

In regard to the future the deliverances of the committee are wise and impressive. They say truly that "only a beginning has been made," that a "long and arduous struggle still confronts those citizens who desire to see the affairs of this city administered solely in the interests of its inhabitants," and that permanent victory can be secured "only by a general recognition of the truth that the efficient administration of local government demands an entire separation from the field of national politics." The task of conducting the work on these lines they leave to the Good Government clubs and the City Club, and we are glad to be able to say that preparations have been made already by these organizations to continue it. What we must have is a city party, distinct from all other parties, which will appeal for membership on city issues alone, and it is the intention of the City Club and the affiliated Good Government clubs to lead the way for the formation of such a party in the immediate future.

The present year affords an exceptionally good time for such a movement. We are to have our first election under the new constitutional provision for separate municipal elections. We are to hold it at a time when questions of municipal administration are attracting unusual attention, and when the experiment of conducting a non-partisan administration on a multi-partisan basis is being made with only partial success. Every thoughtful man, while admitting that Mayor Strong's achievements are probably as great as we had any right to expect from an executive elected as he was, is convinced that the method of his election was a necessary first step towards a really non-partisan nomination and election, and as such cannot be repeated, but must be used as a basis for advance to better things. The city is full of voters who are ready to be led into a genuine non-partisan city organization, and if that leadership be undertaken in the proper spirit, as we are confident it will be, its success cannot be doubted. It is fortunate that so many judicial nominations are to be made this year —three new judges of the Supreme Court, two General Sessions judges, and two City Court judges. The voters are more interested in non-partisanship on the bench than anywhere else, and a list of judicial candidates of the highest character, not a man of them associated with any partisan faction or organization, would be a strong rallying-ground upon which to muster strength for a city party.

THE BRITISH OPIUM QUESTION.

LONDON, June 12, 1895.

EVERY country has its weak points. There is, however, this difference between the failings of the United States and those of the United Kingdom: with you, the institutions of the country are in the main absolutely fair, as between man and man; if they are not fairly worked, it is the fault of individuals or localities. Here, on the contrary, each citizen who does not protest is partly responsible for institutions and laws which are often most unjust. The United States has kept steadily clear of foreign complications. The United Kingdom is widely involved therein. Only those who have had opportunities of looking below the surface of affairs can realize how every British voter, by the nature of the empire, is constantly being involved in shady transactions and frequently in crimes of the deepest dye. One of the most flagrant has been the opium traffic. Wars to legalize and extend the use of this drug in China are among the worst crimes on record. The grass soon grows over the graves of men slaughtered in battle, and internecine wars are almost forgotten after a cen-

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tury or two; but the miseries and demoralization engendered by a vice like the use of opium are endless. Posterity will regard it as almost incredible that the wealthiest nation in the world, boasting itself the greatest and freest, should have waged wars for such a purpose—that the sunny lawns of thousands of English homes, the rose-covered porch of many a parsonage and many a trim Sunday-school, owe their erection to and have drawn much of their support from the degradation of "brethren" and "sisters" abroad in opium dens and bagnios. No subject has more disturbed the "Nonconformist conscience." Late developments have drawn increased attention to it.

Opium is a Government monopoly in British India. The cultivation of the poppy, permitted only in certain narrowly prescribed areas for convenience of oversight, is carried on under license by means of Government advances. The product is manufactured into opium and sold by Government. Ninety per cent. is exported to China and the Straits Settlements. During the first ten years of the century, the exports amounted to 2,500 chests, value £250,000. By 1851 the trade had increased to 53,000 chests, value £5,459,000; by 1861 to 59,000 chests, value £10,184,000; and by 1871 to 89,000 chests, value £11,790,000. It appeared to have reached its maximum between 1876 and 1880, when it rose to about 102,000 chests, value £12,640,000. Finding they could not keep out foreign opium, the Chinese have taken to growing and manufacturing themselves. The export has now declined to 76,000 chests. It is appalling to learn that the present import amounts to only one-seventh of the quantity consumed in China. The average area under cultivation of the poppy in British India for the decade ending 1862-'3 was 338,000 acres; 1872-'3, 475,000; 1882-'3, 519,000; 1892-'3, 513,000. The net opium revenue to the India exchequer, which in 1880-'1 was RX8,450,000* (£7,042,000 in gold), has now fallen to RX5,123,000 (£2,775,000 in gold). This latter sum forms 14 per cent. of the total revenues of the country.

The evils of opium are patent. Its use in most civilized states is permitted only under restriction and regulation. China, in her treaties with other nations, has stipulated against the introduction of the drug. The Japanese are strong enough to prevent its importation. As in the case of slavery, before the opium trade had become a great interest, and while, after becoming important, it was at its chief centre not seriously threatened, all were ready to acknowledge its injuriousness, and to profess a desire, if possible, to restrict it. In 1817 the East India Company, writing to the Governor-General, expressed their wish "to restrain the use of the pernicious drug. . . . Were it possible to prevent the use of the drug altogether, except strictly for the purpose of medicine, we would gladly do it in compassion to mankind." From that period until recently, recurrent official opinions of equal weight were uttered as severely condemnatory of the trade. The licensing arrangements regarding the growth of the poppy and the manufacture and sale of opium may at first have aimed at checking the evil. But as license fees and duty became a valuable source of revenue, the sale was doubtless fostered, whether consciously or otherwise, and by the lower if not the higher officials. An immediate result of the Chinese war was to enlarge the demand. When Burmah was annexed, the sale of opium was there legalized, despite strenuous protests from the inhabitants. Meanwhile, thoughtful public opinion at home gradually strengthened against the increasing imperial implication in the traffic. Anti-opium associations were formed, four of the principal of which at present act in hearty union. Sir Joseph Pease, Bart., M.P., a member of the Society of Friends, has led the movement. In 1885, the use of opium having been fixed upon China, she was, under the Cheefoo Convention, theoretically enabled to lessen at discretion the importation from India; but considerable passive difficulties were left in the way of her doing so. The continued opposition of the Burmese and the pressure of public opinion at home compelled the Indian Government to institute new regulations there in 1894. The possession of opium, except for medicinal purposes, is now forbidden *to Burmans*. The rule is absolute in upper Burmah; in lower Burmah, natives were allowed some months within which those who had contracted the opium habit might still register themselves as consumers. Its use is still permitted in Burmah to Chinese and other foreigners.

The anti-opium movement appeared nearly successful in 1891, when, on the 10th of April, in the House of Commons, the following resolution, moved by Sir Joseph Pease, was carried:

"This House is of opinion that the system by which the Indian opium revenue is raised is morally indefensible, and would urge upon the Indian Government that they should cease to grant licenses for the cultivation of the poppy and sale of opium in British India, except to supply the legitimate demand for medical purposes, and that they should at the same time take measures to arrest the transit of Malwa [native-states] opium through British territory."

In the course of the debate, Sir James Ferguson, speaking as Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs on behalf of the Government, made the following satisfactory announcement:

"The Chinese at any time may terminate the treaty on giving twelve months' notice, and to protect themselves they may increase the duty to any extent they please, or they may exclude it altogether. This I think I may say, that if the Chinese Government thought proper to raise the duty to a prohibitive extent, or shut out the article altogether, this country would not expend one pound in powder and shot, or lose the life of a soldier, in an attempt to force opium upon the Chinese."

Mr. W. H. Smith, leader of the House, stated that the policy of the Government of late had been to diminish the area of cultivation of the poppy.

Next year the Conservatives were defeated and the Liberals came into power. Six members of the new Cabinet and ten other members of the new Government had voted with Sir Joseph Pease. On June 30, 1893, the anti-opiumists in the House moved for a royal commission to inquire into the means by which the resolution of April 10, 1891, should be carried into effect. This was met by a motion on behalf of the Government, by Mr. Gladstone, for a royal commission to inquire into the question and (practically) to report as to whether the resolution of April 10, 1891, should be or could be acted upon. Great pressure was put upon the followers of the Government, and Mr. Gladstone's motion was carried by 184 to 105, the anti-opiumists voting against it. A commission of nine was appointed; evidence was taken in London and India. The final report recently appeared, evidence and report extending to 2,500 pages of foolscap folio. The report, agreed to by eight of the nine commissioners, is regarded by the pro-opiumists as an unequivocal triumph. Its conclusions in effect are: that it has not been proved necessary or desired by the Indian people that the manufacture and sale of opium should be prohibited; the import into China is permitted and regulated by treaties deliberately accepted by the Chinese Government; no action tending to destroy the trade should be taken; the refusal to permit the transit of native Indian opium through British territory would involve the necessity for pecuniary compensation and a heavy loss of revenue to the Government of India; the finances of the country are not in a condition to bear such loss, nor the cost of preventive measures, nor the loss of revenue resulting from the adoption of a general policy of prohibition; there is no evidence of extensive moral or physical degradation from the use of opium in India; it is extensively employed for non-medicinal and quasi-medicinal purposes, in some cases with benefit and for the most part without injurious consequences. "We are not prepared to make recommendations [towards its abolition] without careful study of details."

The anti-opiumists, though disappointed, are not discouraged, and are mustering their forces with renewed ardor to the attack. They take their stand upon the minority report of Mr. Henry J. Wilson, M. P., which traverses nearly all the conclusions of his fellow-commissioners. The majority report is discounted by the manner in which the commission was captured and nursed by the Government in India, and the extent to which, through the influence of this Government, evidence in favor of the trade was put forward and evidence against it minimized or suppressed. The Government of India, the interested party, did not stand neutral, as it ought to have done. The commission, on landing, was met by a letter from the Viceroy pointing out the difficulties which the abrogation of the trade would entail upon the Government. The members were guests of the Viceroy in Calcutta, and of local authorities elsewhere. Since the appearance of the report, the commissioners have been thanked for it by the Indian Government. The result is much the same as if, forty years ago, a commission had gone South to inquire into the evils of slavery and the possibilities of abolition, and been guided and coached by Southern officials and entertained by Southern governments. Only men of very clear moral insight and independent judgment could stand such an ordeal. This is the third occasion on which, within the period of office of the present Government, the Indian bureaucracy has shown itself able to circumvent the deliberate conclusions of the British Parliament on questions of Indian policy. (1.) It has checkmated the decision of 1891 regarding opium. (It has, through this report, pronounced that Sir James Ferguson was mistaken when he asserted that China had it in her power to terminate the present agreement, and that Mr. Smith was wrong when he stated that the area of poppy cultivation was materially decreasing.) (2.) It has reversed the decision of 1893 regarding simultaneous examinations in England and in India for the higher Indian civil-service appointments. (3.) It has evaded the directions of the home Government prohibiting the regulation of vice. "It is most important," says Mr. Wilson, "to emphasize the fact that not only do the Maharajah of Darbhanga and Mr. Haridas Viliaridas [the native Indian members] agree with me in certain very important particulars, but the evidence in India was unanimous, and the com-

* RX signifies "tens of rupees." When the rupee was worth two shillings, RX1=£1. In 1881-2 the rupee stood at 1s. 8d. It is now worth only 1s. 1d. Indian financial statements are made out and presented to Parliament in tens of rupees (RX).

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missioners are unanimous, in condemning the *smoking* of opium; and inasmuch as nine-tenths of all the opium produced in British India is used for *smoking* in China, the Straits Settlements, etc., it is clear that even the majority report has gone a long way towards proving the traffic is morally indefensible."

Although the House of Commons has by a large majority practically endorsed the report of the majority, the anti-opium movement is likely to progress and gather strength. "There is something distinctly humorous," says one of its ablest leaders, "in a call to draw down the curtain on an agitation of fifty years' steady growth, carried on by men many of whom are more deeply versed in the question than any of the commissioners, because . . . of the conclusions of nine gentlemen who have been taking evidence under the auspices of the Indian Government." British anti-opiumists will not have Indian native opinion on their side unless they are clear upon one point. The trade has been fostered and developed in India by the British people for the supposed benefit of the British Empire. On the British, not on the Indian, people should fall any loss resulting from its abolition. D. B.

DURHAM DOCK LABORERS AND PITMEN.—II.

ENGLAND, May 10, 1895.

BETWEEN trimmers and all the Dock workmen in Class I. and the pitmen of Class II. there is completest distinction in every way. Even when living in adjoining houses, they rarely know or speak to one another. The old feeling that a pitman is in most cases a brainless "Geordie," only fit to work in darkness and dirt, strongly survives; and many pitmen feel this as a real grievance, which, however, in their eyes excuses their drunken freaks. Houses are generally provided by pit-owners for their workmen—long ugly rows of one-storied buildings; and this has tended in times past to make them shy of any society but their own. And the work is so different from anything above ground—it means such unseasonable hours, and, in the old days, such terrible risks—that many a trimmer looks back with shame on the time when as a boy he "went down pit." The danger no longer exists, for most careful precautions are now taken against all preventable accidents; with the happy result that fewer men are now injured in coal-pits than in what is generally considered the less dangerous work of the ship-building yards. But pitmen do not change their nature all at once. For generations they had been the least taught and most neglected class in England. They have only within twenty years given up cock-fighting; their chief sport still is the degrading and disgusting practice of rabbit-coursing—which enables us to understand how the hideous cruelties once common could be perpetrated upon the ponies in the pits. Even now there is nothing which seems more to deaden the finer feelings of a boy of fourteen than to be sent to drive "tubs" while his father is "hewing" coal for a colliery.

The pay of hewing pitmen would be considered good by any who knew how to spend and how to save. The full-blown "hewer" is paid according to the amount he hews and sends up from the "face" or solid wall of coal. The amount he can hew depends a great deal upon the nature of the "cable" or position in the pit he has won; for the hewers all draw lots for their "cables" every quarter. If he has a hard, difficult face to work on, he may earn only twenty-five shillings a week; if he has been lucky and has drawn a spot where the coal is soft and shelvy, ready to split, he may earn as much as £4 a week. Every pitman has his "marrow," or mate, whose account runs in common with his own, and who takes his place at the face when the first shift of seven hours is over and the back-shift men succeed. A pit is thus working continuously throughout the week. Hewing is hard work at any time in the close though equable air 500 feet below ground, which allows the men on the face to take off all their clothes but their shorts and shoes. It is doubly difficult when, as in some cases, the hewer cannot stand up or sit up, but lies on his side to hew at a seam of coal which is perhaps only a foot deep. The habit of walking along low galleries makes most pitmen stoop, and gives to them all a wondrous knack of sitting upon their heels.

But if the work is exhausting, the hours are not long. The rule throughout Durham is that seven hours from "bank to bank," *i. e.*, from going down the pit-mouth to coming out again, comprises the pitman's day. Frequently, when landed at the bottom, he has three miles to walk or ride before he reaches his work, and the same distance back; so that five hours' hewing may often represent the amount of work done. In addition to money wages he has considerable privileges. He lives rent-free in a house which his pit-owners provide, and which, if not large, is generally water-tight, and often has a useful garden attached, which he usually refuses to dig. Coal, also, is supplied free to every house in which any member is working in the colliery, and though no wife ever lights more than one fire, she consumes a ton of coal every fortnight, for she never lets that one out. The last duty before going to bed is to put three or four bucketfuls of coal in the grate which may burn up for breakfast. Besides this, the pitman is insured by the company, out of his wages, and a doctor is provided.

With such resources, one might well suppose that pitfolk should be comfortable. Yet the standard of comfort in pit villages is very low indeed. There are many cottage homes in agricultural parts of Norfolk or Essex where the united wages of the family is never more than 15s. a week, out of which rent has to be paid for house and garden, and coals bought, which are yet more neat and clean, and supplied with better furniture, than most pitmen's houses. There is no comparison between the two so far as luxury and refinement are concerned. Yet the income of the northern home is often five times as much as the other. The son of the pitman rarely leaves his home until he is married, and not always then. The mother of a family has thus very frequently not only the wages of her husband but also the wages of two or three of her sons to depend upon for keeping house. A son of fourteen years may be earning 15s. and another twenty years old may earn £1 a week, while the father's wage probably averages £2. This gives a total weekly income of £3 15s., with house rent, rates, taxes, water and coal free—or a third more than the stipend of an ordinary curate; and this is by no means a rare case. But economy is unknown, and the waste of food is very painful to see. A pitman must be well fed, for he believes that if a man will not eat, neither shall he work. So, also, must his inevitable rabbit-dog. This must have its mutton chop though his child go barefoot for it. Yet if the women knew how to manage, they might humor the most absurd whims of their husbands and yet save. Some of the more knowing ones contrive to do this through the coöperative stores. These stores allow interest, which may be claimed at the year's end, upon the total amount spent with them. The wise women allow their husbands to forget that for every shilling spent at the stores a penny is returnable, and instead of drawing out their share at the year's end, leave it to accumulate as a nest-egg. This is the process which they name "eating themselves rich." Whether for this or for other reasons, co-operative stores are particularly prosperous in pit districts, though it is almost always allowed that you pay more in them for an article which is equally good in a shop.

No one who had not seen it would believe in the picturesque savageness which a pitman's house presents in the afternoon when father and sons return from their work. They come in black all over with coal-dust, their blue stockings and half-shoes smeared thick with pit-clay, their hands grimy with blasting powder. Without washing a finger or an inch of their faces, they sit down at once on the wooden settee before which the deal table is drawn up. Without a word of greeting or question of any sort, the mother draws from the oven the boiled duff and mess of meat—five or six pounds in all—which is the unchanging meal. Boys and father eat all up, plum duff first, then meat, then gravy with bread, and wash all down with perhaps a pint of water. Though at the fortnight's end or pay Saturday he may drink beer and spirits—one hewer told the writer that to get drunk once a fortnight was his favorite form of medicine, better than salts or pills—the pitman rarely drinks anything intoxicating at his meals. Then the pipe is filled and lighted, and the working portion of the family take it in turn to wash.

This again is a peculiar ritual worthy of notice. The mother or sister brings a large tub full of warm water, a towel, and some cakes of soap, which she deposits in front of a roaring hot fire. The man then slowly divests himself of shirt, shoes, and stockings, rolls up his shorts full six inches above the knees, and seats himself naked, except round his middle, on a wooden "crocket" or stool, with the water-tub between his legs. Slowly he plunges his arms in, and leaves them to soak for three or four minutes, then draws them out and soaps them, his chest, neck, and shoulders. His legs and feet he leaves till last, and his back he refuses to wet at all, lest water should make it weak. At the end of twenty minutes he considers himself clean, and calls to his wife or mother or sister to bring him a towel. All this goes on in the principal room of the house, which opens immediately upon the street, which is kitchen and bedroom and bake-house and bath-room all in one, where the chickens run about picking up crumbs and the litter of greyhound puppies quarrel over a bone. His bath over, the pitman as leisurely dresses himself, in full view of his family and the passers-by; then lights his pipe, whistles to his dog, and goes to lounge away the rest of his time in the reading-room or at the street-corners until bedtime comes. The hours at which he begins work again vary considerably according as he is on a fore or back shift, and so a regular "caller" is always paid to go round and wake men at the proper hours. On the door of every pitman's cottage you may see chalked up a notice of the hours of calling.

One reason for the thriftlessness of many of the pitfolk is the unstable nature of their work. It might be thought that when houses and gar-

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dens are provided there would be security for continuance. This is not so. The signed contract-note between manager and workmen in the pits binds the two parties for only a fortnight. Cessation of work means also leaving their house. When trade falls bad, managers are often reduced to the necessity of paying off fifty men a week until times are better, and even continue to do this until none but the "viewers" or foremen inspectors are on their books. Under these circumstances men move about the country very frequently in search of work, and many try America or Australia for a time, though they generally gravitate back to the place where they were born. Besides the fluctuations of trade, there are peculiarities proper to mining which make work precarious. The seam of coal may give out, or become so inferior in quality as to be no longer worth working; water may come in in such quantities that no pumping can keep the pit workable. Thousands of pounds are spent in trying to conquer this difficulty; and if all fails, five hundred families are sent adrift to get work where they can find it. A whole village of two thousand-people is left empty and deserted, while grass grows in the once populous streets, and sheep feed in the once fertile cabbage-gardens. There is an instance of a company which, to keep its men employed and not to lose custom, actually contracted to deliver some thousands of tons to a Swedish railway *freight-free* for six shillings a ton. This happened within the three years last past. Possibly after some years a speculator buys pit, plant, and houses for an old song, succeeds in pumping it dry, or discovers some new process for making it pay; and in six months the original workers are crowding back from all parts of England, to inhabit again the houses they had left, as quickly as mason and carpenter can make them habitable.

One economical law is brought home very clearly to any one who studies social questions among such classes. It is crystallized into the North Country proverb, which says, "It is not what a man addles [earns], but what he saves, that makes him rich." And you are only likely to save when you know what your income exactly will be. Then can a man calculate his expenses beforehand, and decide how much he can afford to lay aside every week for a rainy day. When wages vary as much as ten shillings every week, the standard of comfort is apt to be ruled by the lowest receipt, while excesses over this are spent in extravagance. Security and fixity with an income of twenty-five shillings a week is more conducive to comfort and thrift than a higher average income, say, of two pounds a week, which comes in irregular instalments. All the thinking workmen see the truth of this, but they could not if they wished (and perhaps they would rarely wish) free themselves from the competitive contract system. It is demoralizing to their character, and makes them old men years before they need have been. They lose the peace of mind which comes from doing work well because it is your duty, irrespective of the pay, but they gain the pleasure of feeling more direct pecuniary interest in the work they do, and the delight of finding sometimes that they have earned more than they expected.

The third class, the casual Dock laborers, firemen, and seamen, are not in any way peculiar to the district. They live on the smallest and most doubtful wages, very frequently in one room and generally in much dirt. There are many of them verging on the line of the "submerged tenth," bankrupts in health and character and purse, living from hand to mouth, falling into excess of every sort after any windfall of wages. Some, the lowest of all, do not do twenty days' work in the year, and yet have wives and families. How they manage to exist is an insoluble problem. The craze for drink and tobacco is said sometimes to be so overpowering on men who spend half the year in a workhouse, that so soon as they have earned fourpence by an hour's work, at unloading a timber-ship, they will draw their pay, buy a glass of beer and half an ounce of tobacco, and do nothing more that day. For these there is no moral help. They are a residuum who can only be treated as children or lunatics. W.

CARDUCCI—TASSO—FERRARA.

BOLOGNA, June, 1895.

ON the 12th of May, the day chosen by Ferrara to commemorate the third centenary of Tasso's death, Zanichelli published Carducci's "Ode to the City of Ferrara," which will assuredly be placed among the first and greatest of his poetic works. The concentrated vigor of conception, the exquisite form, the resonant melody of the second portion (in Sapphic metre), the majestic distichs of the first and third parts, require a Longfellow to render even in blank verse; but the whole poem is so complete a history of Ferrara, from its birth till the hour when the "accursed Vatican she-wolf" assailed, wounded, and seized upon its prey—the figure of Tasso there in his youth and glory driven to madness not by love for "Leonora, senz' amore virgine matura," not by the persecution of the Duke of Este, who was throughout his best friend and protector, but by the moral and material terrors of the Vatican, stands out in such strong relief—that the ode given in prose cannot fail to charm. Carducci's numerous classical and mythical allusions are so frequent that one has to take one of his own "cold baths of erudition," and hence the need of occasional notes. At the end of the poem we read what here follows:

"In these verses the history of Ferrara and also its mythical pre-history—even the geological and psychological conformation of its province—are introduced to represent the preparation and the development of the epopee which was destined to illustrate the city. Poetry may, peradventure, yet hold its own in this field. The present belongs to the drama, the novel, the newspaper; the future to God; the past, the *doloroso* glorious past, may yet belong to poesy, especially in a history so complex, made up of so many elements, as is that of Italy."

Carducci, in his lectures delivered in the University of Bologna, 1868-71, on "The Development of National Literature," places its fifth era towards 1490,

"the year of the first foreign invasion, when the greatest poet, Ariosto, the greatest prose-writer, Machiavelli, were in their prime. This era comes to maturity about 1530, the year of the fall of Florence, the death of Sannazaro and Andrea del Sarto, preceded by that of Machiavelli in '27, Leonardo da Vinci in '19, Raphael in '20. Then in '33 dies Ariosto, Correggio in '34. The fertile period continues until 1559, when the peace of Cateau-Cambrésis confirmed the dominion and predominance of the Austrian house of Spain in Italy handed over to foreign lords, and may be said to end in 1565, a year after the Council of Trent, which effected Catholic renovation, suffocated freedom of thought and speech till then enjoyed—tolerated if not actually sanctioned. These last years in art were full of the old age of Titian and Michelangelo in literature, of the flower of the minor prose-writers. Guicciardini died in '40, Bembo in '47, Fracastoro in '53, Vida in '66. Torquato Tasso was born in 1544."

In the third volume of the critical edition of Tasso's Works (seventeenth volume of the "Library of Italian Writers," Bologna: Zanichelli, 1895), our poet prefaces the "Aminta" and "Torrismono" with a critical review and an appendix on the minor poems. Still, it is to his lectures one must revert to find Tasso's place in Italian literature, the ambient in which he evolved his poems, their reception by his contemporaries, their influence on future generations. After a tersely brilliant description of the fifth century in the other States of Europe, quickened by the confirmation of their separate nationalities by the Reformation and battles for freedom of conscience, he continues: "Italy had only her federal traditions and organizations. The whirlwind of religious passions that enveloped the German Alps failed to disturb the solemn quietude in which she elaborated the last development of her national and political organization, of her popular conscience in thought and in art." He shows the impossibility of the Reformation, as understood in Germany and England, taking root in Italy:

"Is it possible to imagine a Lutheran Renaissance in Italy, a Zwinglian Ariosto, a Puritan Machiavelli, a Calvinist Raphael, a Quaker Michael Angelo? Verily, no! the life and soul of Italy was federation in politics, rationalism in philosophy and religion, naturalism in art. What fault was hers if in those times she was the freest, most beautiful, the wealthiest, nay, the happiest of European nations?"

Then popes and emperors joined hands to crush her, their united forces barely sufficing. Crushed, strangled, finally, she was not violated.

"Tasso began to think and write at the moment when Latin Europe seemed bent on Catholic renovation in opposition to Protestant reformation. All Christian Europe felt its civilization menaced by the Ottoman Empire. The clash of the battle of Lepanto, that last great Christian battle in which the Italians took so large a part, the last glorious encounter between East and West, yet echoed from the seas. The time was opportune, and Tasso, well fitted to become the poet of Catholic renovation, of Christian civilization, gave Italy a religious and heroic poem, 'Jerusalem Liberated.' No other figure as serious and noble as Torquato Tasso did the sixteenth century produce. He is the legitimate heir of Dante Alighieri: he believes, and reasons out his faith philosophically; he loves, and comments love doctrinally; he is an artist, and writes dialogues of scholastic speculations which would fain be platonic; he innovates and theorizes. And, even as Dante, he ever finds something in himself which his Catholic conscience blames; a spiritual and moral allegory presides over his poem, which yet is essentially religious and chivalrous. Still he fears ever to have rendered it too profane, he rewrites it purified. Not even then content with his revision, he finishes with the 'Poem of the Creation.'

"He is the only Christian of our Renaissance, in which, however, he participates so largely that in his work sensualism blends with mysticism, and for this he grieves and repents while the people delight in it. But this two-fold element of his nature undulating between sensualism and idealism, between mysticism and art; this discord between the life he is condemned to live—he, the knight of the middle ages, the heir of Dante, mazed in the midst of the Renaissance between Ariosto and Machiavelli, Rabelais and Cervantes—of this two-fold element, this discord, he, innocent, suffers the penalty; suffers so intensely that it drives him mad. The wailing, heart-rending cry of the elegy which, athwart the chords of the epic trumpet, bursts sadly yet voluptuously from his heart, proclaims him the first in order of date among modern poets. Tasso has the malady of transitory eras, the malady of Chateaubriand, of Byron, of Leopardi. And thus, in discord with the times in which he lived, he was able to gather in his own breast the latest breath of chivalry and religion.

"It was the final attempt. After Tasso, neither the reaffirmation of ecclesiastical authority, nor the monarchical tradition which

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commenced with the establishment of one powerful foreign dynasty in the south, another in the north, could succeed in exciting or reviving among us a chivalrous or religious movement."

This is Carducci's synthetical appreciation of Tasso's work. As the years go by, and Carducci's adoration for classical purity of form in which to express the wider aims and expanding horizons of the spirit of his own times is intensified, even as his spirituality increases, so also does his abhorrence of Roman Catholicism augment. His maledictions on the Vatican harpies "accursed by Dante and *through* Tasso cursed" proceed from his ever-deepening conviction that only to the greed and foulness of the Papacy, the constant summons of foreigners by the Popes, are due Italy's three hundred years of slavery and degradation. J. W. M.

BARRAS'S MEMOIRS.—II.*

PARIS, June 10, 1895.

BARRAS, after the reception he had had from Robespierre when he went to visit him on his return from Toulon, was convinced that he was doomed and condemned. There is nothing in his memoirs so dramatic as the history of his struggle with the Dictator, a true struggle for life. Robespierre, all-powerful at the Jacobins' Club, had almost ceased to go to the Convention, and it was on the benches of the Convention that Barras began to recruit his allies.

One day Barras was called to the Committee of Public Safety, as having been more particularly mixed up with the military operations. Fouquier-Tinville showed him a list of generals who were to be taken before the Revolutionary tribunal; on the list were Kellermann, Hoche, Championnet, and others. After a moment of stupor, Barras dared to defend these men. "Fouquier-Tinville," he says, "on hearing my observations, gave a nod of his head which showed complete assent. He took a pen from the table and struck off the names of these generals. It was the first time I had seen Fouquier-Tinville; his physiognomy, which I had represented to myself as sinister, his eyes, which I thought those of a tiger, assumed an air of humanity. . . . The Committee made up its lists every day, and he was only the executor. These lists were made up by the whole Committee, in a sort of tumult and without deliberation." Fouquier-Tinville showed him another list, of civilians classed as Girondins. "I saw on it the names of the best patriots." It is probable that Barras used the information thus received in order to increase the number of the opponents of Robespierre. He found his warmest allies in the persons of Tallien and Fouché, who were treated by Robespierre with marked contempt; he would never even speak to them, and "there was in the silence of such a man—of a man who held in his hand the sceptre of death—something more terrible for the imagination than open threats. The mysterious and awful Robespierre had turned everybody against him in the Executive Committee of Public Safety except his blind admirers, Couthon and Saint-Just."

Fouché, who was to play afterwards such an extraordinary part, had then made himself notorious only by his Terrorist measures in Lyons and in the South; he had been so cruel that Robespierre once told him that "his face was the expression of crime." He had been turned out of the Jacobins; he dared not show himself at the Convention; but "he rose early in the morning, and he ran about all day buttonholing Deputies of all opinions, and telling them all, 'You will die to-morrow if he dies not.' To the friends of Danton who survived, he said, 'To-morrow you can have your vengeance.' Robespierre's contempt for Fouché arose from the fact that Fouché had taken advantage of his proconsulate at Lyons to fill his pockets. He was one of the first who began to 'faire de l'argent' at a time when nobody thought of it, either from the effect of the Terror, which was not indulgent to robbers, or from a sentiment of true probity which was dominant among the citizens, occupied and preoccupied only with the defence of the Republic." It was said that at Lyons the *citoyenne* Fouché (an ex-nun who was living with Fouché) had carried away coffers full of things stolen in a convent. Fouché, notwithstanding the extravagance of his Terrorism, had incurred the displeasure of Robespierre; a note of his had been found addressed to a colleague in the Convention: "Before a fortnight, Maximilian will have ceased to exist, or we shall."

The crisis approached; on the 8th Thermidor Robespierre made in the Convention a vague, mysterious, and threatening speech, one of those utterances calculated to remind such of its hearers as had read Tacitus of the "longa et verbosa epistola" which Tiberius used to send to the Senate. On the next day, the 9th Thermidor, Vadier dared to open the attack. Saint-Just replied; Collot-d'Herbois, who had accompanied Fouché to Lyons, happened to preside—a vigorous man, capable of facing even Robespierre. He made it impossible for Robespierre to speak. The Dictator in vain called for the help of the "hommes purs"; the phalanx led by Fouché, Tallien, and Barras, called him "Tyrant! Catiline!" and would not allow him to speak. In vain did he scream finally, "President of assassins, I demand the floor." Can anything more dramatic be imagined than this struggle between assassins? A decree of accusation is voted against Robespierre, against Saint-Just, against a few others; the Dictator is arrested and "the terror inspired by his name is such that in two prisons whither he is transported, at the Luxembourg as well as at the Conciergerie, the doorkeeper refuses to open the doors." Robespierre had to insist he wished to be brought to trial; unfortunately for him, his partisans, hearing of his arrest, rescued him and brought him triumphantly to the Commune. Henriot marched against the Convention; the struggle now was between the Commune and the Convention.

Barras was appointed commander-in chief of the troops in Paris; he confesses having felt at first some hesitation. "I say frankly that this sort of hesitation came from the knowledge which I had of the individual value of the men of the two parties. What was really the shade which distinguished the members of the committees who were hostile to each other? Did their feelings of humanity differ? What did Saint-Just and Robespierre have against Billaud and Collot? What did Collot and Billaud have against Saint-Just and Robespierre? . . . They were all equally guilty in their cruel and pitiless system against all human kind, in the perpetual use they made of the instrument of death against the most innocent creatures. . . . I really saw nothing which could determine a choice between Robespierre and Billaud." Barras says, however, that if the wickedness was equal on both sides, the more dangerous of the two was Robespierre, who had more prestige. "These tumultuous thoughts, which I now analyze with a cool head much better than I then could, induced me to make my choice as a soldier, and to march against Robespierre, to the death. . . . Death, and again death, was the necessary consequence of the struggle." To do him justice, Barras showed much resolution in the struggle. As soon as he accepted the command of the troops which defended the Convention against the Commune, with his little army he attacked the Hôtel de Ville, which was already then, as it was in 1871, the headquarters of the Commune. Barras accepts the legend of the suicide of Robespierre. "Robespierre, with one of the pistols of Lebas, had broken his own jaw." Many historians say that Robespierre was shot by a gendarme. *Adhuc sub judice lis est.*

When Robespierre, with Couthon and Saint-Just, was dragged before the Revolutionary tribunal, in order merely that their identity might be proved, great was the embarrassment of Fouquier-Tinville, the public prosecutor, "the man who, till that moment, even yesterday, used to go to take from Saint-Just and Robespierre orders of execution against all the unfortunate people whom they sent to the scaffold." Barras perceived his emotion. "'Well, Citizen Fouquier,' said I to him, in an imperious voice, 'the Convention has charged me with the execution of its orders. I give you the order to proceed at once to the execution of your mandate. To-day you must show yourself a patriot and send immediately the guilty to the scaffold.' Fouquier did not make me speak twice; he went to his room, took his little cloak, his hat *à la Henri IV.*, called the judges, gave them the fatal order against Robespierre, Saint-Just, Couthon, and their execrable friends, with as much decision as he did the day before when he received the order from Robespierre." Barras ordered that the car which took Robespierre to the Place de la Révolution (now called Place de la Concorde) should pass before Robespierre's house. "The prediction of Danton must be accomplished!"

The 9th Thermidor was a day of deliverance. Barras prides himself much on having immediately afterwards made a visit to the Temple, in order to see the unfortunate son of Louis XVI. and his sister. In his first version, written at the time, he says: "I found the young Prince in a cradle in the middle of the room asleep; he woke with difficulty. He had on pantaloons and a vest of gray cloth. I asked him how he was, and why he did not sleep in the big bed. He said that his knees were swollen and suffered at the joints when he was up; he liked the cradle better. I examined his knees; they were much swollen as well as the ankles and the hands; his face was swollen and pale." The rooms of the Prince and Princess were very filthy. Barras gave a few orders, but learned afterwards that they had not been carried out.

During the siege of Toulon, Barras had become acquainted with Bonaparte. After the 9th Thermidor he inquired for him and learned that he had left the army of Italy and was in Paris. He had made the acquaintance of the younger Robespierre and of Clarke, who was a clerk of the Committee of Public Safety. "I reproached him on the subject of his conduct, and told him that it was no longer the fashion of the day; that he must remain a patriot, but be less Robespierrist. Bonaparte answered me, 'At any price, I must have employment; if I cannot obtain some service, I will go and ask for it in Constantinople as an artilleryman.'" He desired to be presented by Barras to the Committee of Public Safety. A

* 'Memoirs of Barras, Member of the Directorate.' Volumes I. and II. Harper & Brothers. 1895.

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struggle was preparing between the Convention and the sections, where the royalists had become very ardent since the 9th Thermidor. Barras organized against the sections a force composed chiefly of the men who had been imprisoned during the reaction which followed Thermidor. He had about 1,500 of these "patriots," and called them the "Sacred Battalion." The royalist sections were openly preparing an attack on the Government. Barras thought of offering a command to Bonaparte; he had some difficulty in finding him, and intimates that Bonaparte had been negotiating with the section of the Rue Lepelletier. When Bonaparte arrived, he said to him: "My positions are commanded by the officers who arrived first; you will be one of my aides-de-camp." He himself examined all the positions.

The struggle was not long; at the psychological moment, "Bonaparte, taking me by the coat, whispered, 'What is your decision, General?' 'Take to Brune the order to fire the guns.' 'All is saved,' answered Bonaparte; 'the victory is ours.'" The guns were fired in the Rue St. Roch, and the Church of St. Roch long bore the marks of the bullets. The members of the sections fled in all directions; the royalist movement was crushed without much difficulty. Barras showed on this day of Vendémiaire, as he had on the 9th Thermidor, much decision. There was something of the regular officer left in him. "We have," he says, "for the 13th Vendémiaire, posthumous historians who would give to their hero [Bonaparte] the sole glory of bringing about the 13th, as well as the gendarme Méda, historian after his death of his own acts, who finds himself making the 9th Thermidor by his intrepidity, conducting his troops against the Commune, entering there first, killing Robespierre with his own hand, exercising the supreme command on that day, all in compliance with an order which he had received from the Committee of Public Safety, an order which never existed." "I have said frankly, completely, all that Bonaparte did in person on the 13th Vendémiaire; he accompanied me in the morning, but he could not always accompany me, as I was on horseback and he was on foot, and it was only when I had the last orders to send that, fearing lest, with all his vivacity, he might not arrive in time, I had a horse given to him."

It has been said that when the sections were disarmed, a boy presented himself at Bonaparte's headquarters and offered the sword of his father, who had commanded the armies of the Republic; that this boy was Eugène Beauharnais, who became afterwards viceroy of Italy; that Bonaparte gave him back the sword of Beauharnais, and that the next day Madame Beauharnais came to thank him. Such is the accredited version of the first relations of Bonaparte and Josephine. Barras comes across this sentimental story. He knew Josephine, who belonged then to Madame Tallien's set; he recommended her as well as her son to Bonaparte, whom he had appointed *commandant de l'intérieur* in his own place. The visit of the boy to Bonaparte is, if we must believe him, a mere fable.

The Memoirs of Barras, although they have suffered various additions, suppressions, changes, and, so to speak, transformations, will be valuable to the historian when he comes to speak of the events in which he had to take a prominent part. His account of the 9th Thermidor and of the 13th Vendémiaire are the most important parts of the first volume.

Correspondence.

THE DIRTY DOG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial of the 20th inst. your praise of the dog at the expense of the horse seems so unjust that I am led to say a few words on the matter. You speak of "the advantages enjoyed by the dog" as "man's friend and companion" and the intelligent co-operation thence developed. Allow me to ask if "the advantages enjoyed by the dog" have tended to diminish in the course of ages in the very least degree the filthy and disgusting habits of the dog, which ought by good rights to make him repulsive to every person that is endowed with any culture or refinement? Can one imagine a horse to be guilty of such outrages against common decency, even among animals? Other animals yield only to the pressing needs of the moment. Dogs jump at every chance to gratify a degraded and prurient nature. The dog is the only animal that eats his own excrement, and that from preference. Can one imagine a horse guilty of such an act? Yet it is the continual custom of the dog, and has ever been since he "returned to his own vomit again," as in the days of Solomon.

You speak of the intelligence of the dog. Have ages of familiarity with man succeeded in teaching him not to lie down in the middle of the street, instead of at the side? Have they taught him not to eat the hot biscuits and slabs of plum-cake that foolish masters and mistresses are always giving him? Have they taught him not to howl at night and rend the sky with discordant yelps and cries, compared with which the shriek of a steam-tug is melodious bliss?

There are no less than 174 lines in Shakspere in which the dog is mentioned, and in every case coupled with a contumelious epithet, from "blasphemous, incharitable dog" in the "Tempest," to "O Spartan dog! More fell than anguish, hunger, or the sea," in "Othello." All honor to Shakspere for his appreciation of the truth and his courageous tribute to the same. In the Bible we find the same opinion of the dog, from Moses to Christ, when he said: "Give not that which is holy unto dogs." In all literature it is the same. The dog is ever associated with the degrading and derogatory, from "dogged" and "dog's ears" to "doggerel" and "dog's-bane." To "go to the dogs" is to be irretrievably ruined, and "the dog-days" represent the condensed and hopeless misery of perspiring humanity. "The dog in the manger" is only equalled by those that "bark and bite, for 'tis *their* nature to."

Nature has made the dog a dirty animal in all his habits and sympathies. A pig is a sybarite in comparison. No ages of artificial and unnatural association will ever make him other than what he is, more filthy, more greedy, more annoying, and more repulsive than in that wild state into which he so easily relapses, and that without the least reluctance.—Pray believe me,

Yours with respect,

Howard Payson Arnold.

No. 156 Beacon St., Boston, Mass.,
June 22, 1895.

HOME-MARKET LATIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I see, by the latest issue of the *Nation*, that the Minister of Education for Ontario keeps on advertising, on this side of the boundary line as well as on the other, for a Professor of Latin for University College, Toronto. His obvious purpose is to obtain for the college the very best Latinist that the widest inquiry can discover for the salary offered. But suppose that "best" should prove to be not a Canadian, nor even an Englishman, and possibly an American! Nothing less than a symposium by those eminent internationalists, Senators Morgan and Lodge, and the diplomatic editor of the *Tribune*, could adequately express the abasement of feeling and conduct in the Minister of Education that alone could lead to such a climax.

Well! This is a Canadian question after all. We may rest in the serene confidence that our statesmen, mingling habitual patriotism with accustomed culture, can always be trusted to call for the primest specimen of American Latin, with total exclusion of the foreign article. C. F. B.

Washington, June 22, 1895.

MR. RILEY'S DIALECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Nation* of June 13 (No. 1563), in the very interesting article entitled "The Novelist on his Travels," reference is made to James Whitcomb Riley's dialect poetry, and Mr. Maurice Thompson is quoted as saying that the people who speak it do not exist. He is very wrong; Mr. Howells hits nearer the mark. Mr. Riley says his poetry is written in the Hoosier dialect—hence it is distinctly Indianian; but it is more, for I have heard it spoken, precisely as he has written it, in southern and western Iowa and in some counties in eastern Nebraska. The two dialects are so similar that I was positively startled when I first began to notice them, and I greatly wondered at the trouble and study it had cost Mr. Riley to catch all those quaint tricks of speech. He is not just perfect, as Mr. Howells is quoted as saying, especially in the children's dialect; but he is so near it that we forego criticism.

Respectfully yours, T. G.

Council Bluffs, Iowa, June 21, 1895.

A MODIFIED GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to apologize for the hasty and unwarranted criticism upon the *American Journal of Semitic Languages* (published in the *Nation* for June 6) and the gentleman referred to as its managing editor (although he is only an associate editor). I desire also to make the following corrections:

(1.) Four years ago I proposed to the gentleman above mentioned that he should join me in editing an Assyrian Dictionary. The proposition was declined. My former statement in the *Nation* that the proposition originally came from him was misleading.

(2.) I find that my statements concerning the review were incorrect. The proofs, as is evident from the supplementary note in the *Journal*—overlooked by me—were held for the revised edition, and the reviewer had both the first and second editions in hand at the time of writing. I desire, therefore, to withdraw all the reflections cast upon the managers of the journal in question.

(3.) I wish to state also that the first edition of my Dictionary was withdrawn at the suggestion of the above-mentioned gentleman be-

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cause of the inconsistencies which he kindly pointed out to me.

(4.) I wish to withdraw the slurs implied in the use of the phrases "ostensibly written" and "cold-blooded attack."

Yours respectfully, W. MUSS-ARNOLT.

CHICAGO, June 22, 1895.

Notes.

LONGMANS, GREEN & Co. are preparing a series of English classics for use in secondary schools in accordance with the system of English study recommended by the Committee of Ten. Prof. G. R. Carpenter of Columbia will have the general editorship of them.

Chautauqua text-books for 1895-96 in the press of Flood & Vincent, Meadville, Pa., are 'The Growth of the American Nation,' by Prof. H. P. Judson; 'The Industrial Evolution of the United States,' by Carroll D. Wright; 'Initial Studies in American Letters,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers; 'Some First Steps in Human Progress,' by Prof. Frederick Starr; and 'Thinking, Feeling, Doing,' by Prof. E. W. Scripture.

Macmillan & Co. have ready the first of a series of contributions on philosophical, psychological, and educational subjects issuing at irregular intervals from the department of philosophy and education of Columbia College; and in press a history of the Seventeenth Lancers, by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue, and 'The Flower of England's Face,' by Mrs. Julia C. R. Dorr.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish this month 'The Story of the Plants,' by Grant Allen, and 'A Study in Prejudices,' by George Paston.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will bring out immediately 'Impressions and Memories,' by J. Ashcroft Noble; 'Earth Work out of Tuscany,' impressions and translations of Maurice Hewlett; and 'Israel among the Nations,' by Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu.

'Clan Traditions and Popular Tales of the Western Highlands and Islands,' collected by the Rev. John Gregorson Campbell (London: Nutt), will prove an acceptable addition to the folklorist's library. It forms vol. v. of the "Waifs and Strays of Celtic Tradition," to which we have already called attention. That part of the present volume which deals with clan traditions has the greater attraction of novelty; the popular tales of the other parts are variants of themes familiar to most readers in folklore. The introduction, by Mr. Alfred Nutt, upon the work and character of the collector, Mr. Campbell (now, alas, deceased), has also a scholarly value.

We are less favorably impressed with 'The Brehon Laws,' by Laurence Ginnell (London: Unwin; New York: Scribners). Various surface indications lead us to the suspicion that the writer is inadequately qualified for his task. How can any scholar of the present day assert (see p. 2) that "the originals [of English laws] in Saxon times were always in Latin," or that the records in legal proceedings continued to be written in Norman French "down to the middle of the eighteenth century"? Ireland and its literature have, it is true, been shamefully neglected in more ways than one; but it is scarcely good policy to try to awaken factitious interest in Ireland by underrating other countries. With the writings of Sir Henry Maine and the volumes of the Brehon Commissioners before one, it ought not to be insuperably difficult to present to the ordinary reader the general distinctive features of Old Irish law. But spurious Irish history is of no value except in a treatise upon comparative mythology. The present volume is not to be read with the implicit faith due to a legal treatise.

Prof. Alfred Wiedemann's little book on 'The Ancient Egyptian Doctrine of the Immortality of the Soul' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) will be of interest to several classes of readers—to the man possessed of curiosity as to the subject in general, to the comparative religionist who desires a concise statement of the Egyptian doctrine of man and his hereafter, and to the Biblical student who would compare his own belief with that of one of the most highly civilized and developed peoples of antiquity. For the specialist in Egyptology the work has little importance. It is brief, its statements are as clear as the subject allows, and the various matters included in the topic are set forth with sufficient fulness for ordinary purposes; but the author has not here made any appreciable addition to the fund of knowledge which we have already at our command. The chief value of the book consists in its being a convenient and lucid compendium. After a few remarks on the Egyptian religion, Prof. Wiedemann takes up the delineation of man and his component parts, which, according to Egyptian conception, were scattered at death, each one of them being, however, separately immortal in itself. The part played by each, and the process of their reunion in the completed celestial being, are considered briefly in the light cast upon the subject by native texts. The Egyptian eschatology is not very satisfactorily considered, but some curious beliefs are outlined. The work is a translation, and is well done. The translator has added a number of pertinent illustrations portraying a variety of funerary scenes and objects.

Two pamphlets come to hand which are worthy of a note of reference as authentic testimony on minor matters of interest in the civil war. The first contains an address before the Confederate Survivors' Association of Augusta, Georgia, by Gen. M. C. Butler of South Carolina. Gen. Butler gives his personal knowledge of the evacuation of the lines of Yorktown by Johnston's army in 1862, and fixes the interval before McClellan's forces became aware of the retreat. The second is a narrative by John Mead Gould, acting Adjutant of the Tenth Maine Volunteers (now cashier of the National Traders' Bank of Portland, Me.), giving in detail the circumstances of time and place attending the fatal wounding of Gen. Mansfield at the battle of Antietam, with an excellent map of part of the field. Both pamphlets are in the best vein of careful statement of matters within the personal observation of the writers at the time, that of Mr. Gould being scrupulously verified as to topography by subsequent visits to the battle-field. They are precisely the kind of evidence the student will prize.

Pierre Loti's 'Le Désert' (Paris: Calmann Lévy) is neither a novel nor an exciting book of any sort whatever. It is a languorously told, dreamy, ineffably fascinating, softly colored account of a trip in "the deep, sonorous desert" of Arabia Petræa. The peculiar charm of Loti's style is felt all through the book; the vagueness, the vaporousness in which he loves to enwrap his thoughts and the scenes he beholds, are over the whole of this volume. It is all the more interesting in that certain passages, taken in conjunction with the closing lines of the prefatory note, hint at a possible evolution in Pierre Loti himself.

M. Paul Hervieu is a literary artist, as every one knows who knows anything of contemporary French literature. But he has not given proof in 'L'Armature' (Paris: Lemerre) of striking originality in the choice of subject. He writes very well, he describes very cleverly, but we are so sick of that cosmopolitan society of immoral habits and filthy ideas that all the literary skill of the author cannot make us swallow another dose of the stuff without a protest.

A unique contribution to the prevailing Napoleon literature is John Grand-Carteret's 'Napoléon en Images' (Paris: Didot), consisting of a series of English caricatures of Napoleon I., chronologically arranged and extending from 1796 to 1816. Of these burlesque and satirical representations of scenes from the life of the victorious Corsican, 271 are described and 130 reproduced in facsimiles of the original drawings by Gillray, Rowlandson, Cruikshank, and other eminent caricaturists. The series begins with the marriage of Napoleon and Josephine, and ends with a sketch of the corpulent Louis XVIII. climbing a greased pole (*mât de cocagne*) in order to seize the crown of France. The obese Bourbon is standing on the shoulders of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, who are all three supported by England.

The Leipzig publishers Breitkopf & Härtel have issued a circular withdrawing from sale the German version of Präger's volume of reminiscences entitled 'Wagner as I Knew Him,' on the ground that many of the letters and other communications contained in the volume are not genuine, as has been shown conclusively by competent critics, and especially by the Vienna Wagnerite Chamberlain, in his strictures on the work printed in the *Bayreuther Blätter*.

We have received from Sheehan & Co., Ann Arbor, a 'List of Books recommended for a High-School Classical Library by a committee of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club.' Any high school might be proud of such a library, little as it could or would be used on the more scholarly side.

While the literature of imagination and of sympathy with Japan is multiplying, it is good to note that the storehouse of regulative fact is easy of entrance. The Transactions and Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Japan have now reached their twenty-third volume. They constitute a body of literature, unique in value, concerning man, nature, art, and literature in the chain of islands reaching from the Kuriles to Formosa. Under the auspices of the Council of the Society, Mrs. Garret Droppers has, with taste, industry, and ability, completed a general index of subjects and authors, with analyses and cross-references. Prof. B. H. Chamberlain leads the list of contributors. The corresponding secretary may be addressed simply Tokyo, Japan.

The Report of the Central Sanitary Bureau of Tokyo for 1891, just issued, compels contrast with the days not yet a full generation past when infectious, contagious, and hereditary diseases were rampant, and the population of Japan was, as to numbers, stationary. Certain diseases like smallpox tend steadily to diminish, but dysentery and syphilis are still persistent, and may be called national, though progress towards thorough control is being made. Besides abundant facts of interest, we note the care exercised in thorough governmental inspection of patent medicines, of food-products and their coverings, and of the linings of cooking-vessels, as well as in licensing practitioners in medicine and salesmen of drugs and chemicals.

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The leading article in the Leipzig *Deutsche Medicinische Wochenschrift* for April 25 gives the results of a long series of clinical experiments conducted by Prof. Rudolf Emmerich and Dr. Hermann Scholl for the purpose of curing cancer by means of *Krebsserum* or *Erysipelserum*. During the last ten or twelve years physicians have repeatedly noticed the remarkably sudden alleviation and rapid healing of carcinoma and sarcoma in consequence of the intercurrence of erysipelas. These observations indicated that in the struggle for existence between pathogenic micro-organisms, the microbe of erysipelas attacks and destroys the microbe of cancer. In 1886 Prof. Emmerich proved also that the microbe of milzbrand or anthrax (*Bacillus anthracis*) is effectually checked in its ravages by the microbe of erysipelas (*Streptococcus erysipelatis*) and the disease healed within forty-eight hours, and sometimes even sooner. The *Krebsserum* or specific for cancer is procured by bleeding a sheep infected with a pure culture of the microbe of erysipelas, and preserving the blood for some time in a sterilized vessel; the microbe is then eliminated, and the residue of blood-serum is the aforesaid specific, which has been applied by Prof. Emmerich to six cases of advanced and aggravated cancer in Munich, Bavaria, apparently with complete success. Whether in these inveterate cases the disease has been wholly cured or only temporarily checked, it is as yet impossible to determine; but Prof. Emmerich is firmly convinced that his serum will prove to be an infallible remedy for carcinoma, sarcoma, and all kinds of malignant scirrhous tumors, if taken in their early stages.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for May opens with an account of the ascent of two of the principal volcanoes of Guatemala by Dr. K. Sapper. A paper upon the earthquake of October 27, 1894, in Argentina describes it as purely tectonic, no trace of volcanic disturbance having been discovered. The editor notices favorably the projected balloon voyage to the North Pole of S. A. Andrée. From the paper submitted by the latter to the Swedish Academy, success appears to depend upon the fulfilment of four conditions: the balloon must be large enough to carry three persons, ballast, instruments, and provisions for four months, and be capable of remaining suspended at the height of 250 metres for thirty days; it must be inflated at some point in the arctic regions, and have a steering apparatus. The car is to have a dark-room for the purpose of developing photographs. It is proposed to start from Spitzbergen in the summer of 1896, and the projector hopes to reach the Pole in forty-three hours. The plan is not that of a mere visionary, but one carefully considered and based on scientific principles. Herr A. Nobel has contributed $5,000 towards its expenses, and it is also stated that King Oscar will subscribe $7,500.

The title "Abenddämmerung," given by Franz Xaver Kraus to his article on Maxime Du Camp in the *Rundschau* for May, might easily lead the reader to turn the pages too hastily and thus lose some bits of information concerning the Prince Napoleon, General Boulanger, and one or two other historical personages. The story of Cardinal de Bonnechose's twice-repeated offer of the imperial crown to the Prince, in exchange for a promise of his support to the papacy, and of the Prince's categorical "Je ne veux pas," the writer of the article believes has never been made public. Boulanger's postprandial "give-away," "Eh bien, je ferai la noce," in reply to the question what he would do when he had become Emperor, was the springing of a trap which Du Camp, with the aid of a lady friend, had set for that pretender.

The *Archivio Storico dell' Arte*, which, for want of subscribers, threatened to founder, has reappeared triumphantly with the first number of a new series containing several interesting articles and documents. The most important contribution is one by Signor Supino, who, after a careful study of various descriptions dating from the 15th century, comes to the conclusion that Giovanni Pisano's pulpit in the cathedral of Pisa orginally was supported on eleven columns, and only *one* sculptured group. The remaining groups, which, if they formed part of this pulpit, would in truth make it grossly over-elaborated, Signor Supino ingeniously proves on both documentary and stylistic grounds to have belonged to the tomb of the Emperor Henry VII., begun in 1315 by Giovanni Pisano's pupil Tino di Camaino, and to have been added to the pulpit during the rearrangement of the cathedral and its monument that took place at the end of the fifteenth century.

In the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts* for June Mr. B. Berenson calls attention to the magnificent Botticelli discovered last winter in the private apartments of the Pitti. He describes the picture which represents, in life size figures, a goddess taming a centaur, as a political cartoon painted to celebrate the triumph of the Medici and their good government (clearly symbolized by the goddess) over the Pazzi and their mad attempts (as clearly symbolized by the centaur). Besides its importance as a work of art, being in fact inferior to none of Botticelli's works, it is invaluable as furnishing a further and much-needed point of departure for the study of this great Florentine's evolution.

The present month has been signalized by the launching of two noteworthy enterprises in French periodical literature, which appeal, one indirectly and the other directly, to foreign readers. We name first the *Revue pour les Jeunes Filles*, issued on June 5 by Armand Colin & Cie., 5 rue de Mézières, Paris. This is a very handsome magazine, without illustrations, and having a serious aim to encourage profitable reading among French girls, who, say the projectors, are deplorably unused to cultivate their minds in the years between school and matrimony. Fiction, humor, poetry, art, travels, female education, employment for women —such are some of the ingredients of this *Revue* as already shown in the first number. The contents will be scrupulously clean.

The second venture is a *Revue Franco-Américaine* (New York: International News Company), which so far falls in line with the foregoing that it professes to honor the American "conviction that a man should not read the tales he will not let his daughter read." This magazine too is very handsome in its typography, but it is also freely and elegantly illustrated, each department by a single hand, with Caran d'Ache for the "Fantaisies," in addition to half-tone views of the several contributors in their respective studies, etc. This gives us portraits of Tolstoy, Clémenceau, Daudet, Catulle Mendès, Mallarmé, Paul Adam, etc., etc. The contents are hard to define, and the physiognomy of the *Revue* not seizable at a glance.

As the *Portfolio* is a periodical consisting of monograph issues, so *American Politics*, announced by Charles H. Kerr & Co., Chicago, will in each number be devoted to some one "important study of live political issues." Silver will be the theme of the first th numbers.

At this year's Presentation day of the University of London, the Lord Chancellor of England, who is also Chancellor of the University, was called on to recognize an unusually large contingent of women, many of them being on the honors list. Miss E. A. S. Dawes (Girton College, honors in classical tripos, examinations for women, Cambridge) was the first woman to receive the degree of Litt.D., being presented to the Chancellor by the University's first recipient of that degree, Mr. R. F. Weymouth. Another woman, Miss F. Higgins, was announced as the first feminine bachelor of music, having two male colleagues. Of the 253 bachelors of art, 80 (or nearly one-third) were women, while women students received 8 of the 29 M.A., 10 of the 81 B.Sc., 8 of the 77 B.M., and 10 of the 47 M.D. degrees conferred. Of the five "honors" granted in the arts, theory, and history of teaching, the majority (three) were women teachers.

It is announced from Berlin that Dr. Bosse, the enlightened Minister of Education for Prussia, has just sanctioned the admission of the daughter of an ecclesiastic to the "Abiturienten" examination at the Prussian Gymnasium. As the Minister's decision overruled that of the provincial pedagogic board which refused the application, it has an important bearing on the future status of the higher education of women in Prussia; this *Abiturienten-examen* being the "open sesame" to every German university, "and to other privileges in certain professions," notably medicine.

We are reminded that Dr. Bosse last May issued regulations for the examination of women candidates for the title and post of head teacher (*Oberlehrerinnen-examen*), which posts had been entirely monopolized by men; it was at the same time provided that in future, in all girls' schools of which the principal is a man, a woman must be associated with him in the management, and that a woman should have charge of at least one of the three upper classes. The conditions of admission to this higher women teachers' examination are a certificate of having passed the "Lehrerinnen" (or ordinary female teachers') examination, "and having taught five years since." But, as the examination includes no Latin, Greek, or mathematics, naturally it could be no substitute for the "Abiturienten-examen." Friends of women have come forward with funds for starting (in Berlin, Leipzig, Carlsruhe, and Munich) gymnasia or classical schools for girls, which should supply the necessary instruction in classics and mathematics.

—Of the 806 pages which make up the fifth and concluding volume of Mr. Larned's 'History for Ready Reference and Topical Reading' (Springfield, Mass.: C. A. Nichols Co.), 424 are devoted to the United States. The remainder are occupied mainly by a "Supplement," containing, besides a number of chronological and genealogical tables, "some passages translated from German and French writings, touching matters less competently treated in the body of the work, where the compilation is restricted to the literature of history in the English language." Some of these are so greatly superior to the articles in the body of the work that it is to be hoped that the editor and publisher will prepare a slip to be pasted into the first volume advising their readers of the "more competent" treatment of certain topics to be found later. There is also a selected Bibliography, with annotations from Freeman and others, which seems on the

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ole well done, though we do not observe in any of the lists either the 'Deutsche Verfassungsgeschichte' of Georg Waitz or the 'Histoire des Institutions Politiques de l'Ancienne France' of Fustel de Coulanges—both of them "epoch-making" works in their different ways. This concluding volume does but confirm the opinion we have already expressed as the earlier ones appeared. The compilation witnesses to a great deal of intelligent drudgery, to catholic interests, and to a painstaking struggle towards completeness. To the real scholar it will occasionally be convenient. It may—we hope it will—contribute to the diffusion of information among the general public; certainly every newspaper office ought to possess it. But it is full of danger for the college boy and college girl. "Topical" reading (if we could only get over the adjective, which reminds us too much of "topical" songs) had, at any rate, this advantage—that in digging out bits from really considerable historians there was always a chance that the reader might be compelled or attracted to read a little more than the bit he was in search of. Coming for mere information, there was just a chance he might find inspiration. But now that the bits of information are already picked out, the reader may think he has nothing further to do than to look in Mr. Larned's volumes under the proper letter of the alphabet. So expeditious a method strikes most people, perhaps, as business-like; but we think that after all we should prefer to increase rather than diminish a lad's temptation to browse over Gibbon and Grote and Mommsen for himself.

—In reprinting 200 copies of a 'List of Early American Imprints belonging to the Library of the Massachusetts Historical Society' from the Proceedings of that society, its author, Dr. Samuel A. Green, has conferred a distinct benefit, not merely in the preparation of the list, but also in putting it into this more accessible form. Though the title does not say so, the list is practically limited to Massachusetts incunabula printed between 1643 and 1700, not half-a-dozen of the 308 titles given having been printed outside of Cambridge and Boston. So limited, the list is naturally largely made up of the curiously half-political theology of the period, which found its chief political function in the election sermon, and shaded from that by indefinable gradations into the catechisms which were prepared by request of the General Court, in the hope that religious unity might in turn produce a united policy in civil affairs. The Mathers come first in this list, Cotton being represented by 31 titles and Increase by 30; Willard contributed 20; and then, in various numbers, Chauncy, Danforth, Lawson, Norton, Oakes, Sewall, and Shepard make up the remaining bulk of this class. Of books falling outside of this category, the almanacs and laws constitute more than one-half, but there are stray examples of a more literary character, poetry having its representatives in Wigglesworth and Bradstreet, biography in Norton's 'Life of Cotton,' and history in Mather's 'Brief History.' Even in science we find the earliest American medical treatise, 'A Brief Rule to guide the Common People of New England, How to order themselves and theirs in the Small Pocks, or Measles' (1677); and Mather's 'Essay on Comets' (1683). The morbid tendency of the Puritan mind finds exposition in an 'Arrowe against Profane and Promiscuous Dancing,' in several works on witchcraft, and, with unconscious humor, in a work on the Quakers entitled, 'Little Flocks Guarded against Grievous Wolves,' which is somewhat reversing the commonly accepted ideas of the relative character of the "Independents" and the "Non-resisters." In contrast, the finer qualities of these same Independents are markedly shown in the large production of books intended to Christianize the Indians, and in Sewall's 'Selling of Joseph'—the first printed New England protest against slavery, though that iniquity had been already "testified" against by the Quakers of Philadelphia. No copy of the 'New England Primer' and no early copy of the 'Bay Psalm Book' are given in the list, which are pitiful gaps in so distinctive a New England collection. The collations and notes are careful and lengthy, and a title-index is added.

—A few weeks ago it was announced that Nicolaus Oesterlein of Vienna had sold his Wagner Museum for $20,000, and that it was to be transferred at once to Eisenach, where a special building has been purchased for it, and Herr Kürscher, the well-known Wagnerian scholar, secured as curator. The Wagner Museum, which includes valuable manuscripts, books, pamphlets, newspaper articles, photographs, busts, and all sorts of curios, is perhaps the most extensive collection of its kind in existence. If any one doubts this, let him examine the four volumes of Oesterlein's catalogue ('Beschreibendes Verzeichniss des Wagner-Museums in Wien'), of which we have just received the fourth volume from Breitkopf & Härtel. These four volumes enumerate all the objects gathered in the Museum, to the number of 10,387, but only those belonging to the years 1813–1883, leaving those relating to the years after Wagner's death to be catalogued by the new curator. Oesterlein's classification is rather over-elaborate, but otherwise his volumes are of extreme value to future essayists and biographers. By way of making his catalogue more interesting, he has quoted a few pithy sentences, here and there, from newspaper articles difficult of access or from manuscript letters. Thus we learn (p. 45) that the famous *al-fresco* performance of "Lohengrin" on the lake of Starnberg before the King's palace, where a real swan was used, was not planned by the romantic Ludwig, but was arranged by the bandmaster as a surprise for him. He liked it so well, however, that he had it repeated the next evening. In one of his annotations Oesterlein gives the information that Wagner's fifteen letters to Frau Wille, which contain such interesting details of the romantic friendship between the composer and the King, are now accessible in book-form (Berlin: Paetel).

—The *Journal of Hellenic Studies* for 1894 (Vol. 14, part ii.) offers a highly important dissertation, by Mr. Arthur J. Evans, on "Primitive Pictographs, and a pre-Phœnician script from Crete and the Peloponnesus," the substance of which was read before the British Association last year, and was summarized in the *Nation* of September 20, 1894. The number of symbols is now increased to eighty-two, and of linear characters to thirty-two. The abundant illustrations and comparative tables of symbols which accompany the article make clear at a glance the interest and novelty of Mr. Evans's discoveries. The tables illustrate the process of transition from pictographs to linear hieroglyphics, which are apparently the ancestors of the Cypriote syllabary, and are, in some characters, identical with it. Some of the forms seem also to have influenced the Phœnician alphabet, as well as the type of certain archaic Greek letters in Cretan inscriptions. This Aegean or Mycenæan system, though containing occasional resemblances to Egyptian hieroglyphs, was evidently developed independently of Egypt; it was in the first place framed to fit some Semitic group of languages, but later became the common property of the Mycenæan civilization, and of Hellenic tribes on the coasts of the Aegean. We can hardly err in referring to it the "deadly characters" (*Iliad*, Bk. vi., line 169) which Prœtus traced in a folded tablet to be carried by Bellerophon to the King of Lycia.

—Other articles of interest are Mr. E. A. Gardiner's proposed restoration of the paintings by Panænus on the throne of the Olympian Zeus, and Mr. A. G. Bather's ingenious explanation of the myth enshrined by Euripides in the "Bacchæ." In this play, and in the legends generally, the cult of Dionysus is represented as coming from abroad, from Thrace and from Asia Minor. Mr. Bather, however, recalls the fact that the worship of a vine deity was indigenous in various parts of Greece, and maintains that, in later times, this native deity became identified with the stranger from Thrace and the East. The Pentheus who, in the "Bacchæ," is dressed in woman's clothes, suspended from a tree and subsequently torn in pieces by the Mænads, his head being carried home in triumph, is no other than the image of the vegetation deity of the old year, borne out of the village, treated with indignity and stoning, and replaced by another figure of the new god, which is carried back in procession from the woods. From the custom of the annual in-bringing of the new deity is derived, as Mr. Bather reasons, the myth of the introduction of an alien Dionysus. When a myth is perpetuated by a festival, we may assume in general that the ritual is older than the myth, and indeed gave birth to it. Now every one of the details just mentioned in the story of Pentheus is paralleled by modern folk-customs connected with May-day festivals in Russia, Bohemia, Lusatia, and Italy—in fact, from one end of Europe to the other. The spirit of them all is expressed in the song of the Bohemian maidens: "Death we draw out of the village, Summer we draw into the village"; and this is the meaning of the mummery of Pentheus. He is the old god carried out of the city; he is sacrificed as a scapegoat for the people, his head is nailed upon the triglyphs as a talisman against evil spirits. He is represented either by an actual human victim, or else by a lay-figure dressed as an old woman; after this is pulled to pieces, the women search in the woods for a new Dionysus, and carry his statue to the village. It is not, of course, pretended that Euripides himself knew he was describing a primitive religious rite; his mind was occupied with the myth, its human pathos, and its ethical significance.

ROMAN AFRICA.

L'Afrique Romaine: Promenades Archéologiques en Algérie et en Tunisie. Par Gaston Boissier. Paris: Hachette et Cie. 1895. Pp. 322.

SINCE the appearance in 1812 of Eustace's 'Classical Tour in Italy' there has always been a demand for books connecting scenes of modern travel with whatever in ancient history, archæology, and classical literature refers to the places visited, or may be grouped about them. Gaston Boissier (for he has reached a position where, in his own country, it is a tri-

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bute to drop the "Monsieur") has written several such books, which have been deservedly successful and have become a sort of superior Baedekers for cultured tourists. It is not easy to surprise the secret of their composition. Boissier always approaches his subject with a superabundance of material. He has not merely an endless capacity for delightful talk, but far more facts, and thoughts upon them, than suffice for his purpose; and he has that fine French tact which knows just when the reader will need a change, either of subject or of treatment. He aims at supplying something for all refined tastes, without becoming irksome to any; in short, he embodies in his work the golden rule of *ne quid nimis*. So much is clear; but the practical carrying out of such a purpose lies not in every man's hand to do.

The reader will not long remain in doubt in what field Gaston Boissier is most at home and most delights. When he is treating of archæology or history, we acknowledge that he is laying before us, most attractively and faithfully, the latest results of archæological or historical studies. He is wonderfully "up to date," and he shows at once a masterly grasp of the whole subject and a surprising familiarity with minute details. But in this field he is no originator; and his chief merit is that the authorities whom he frankly follows are sure to be the best, and the material which he borrows is always the most effective for his purpose. It is needless to say that he gives credit to his authors for what he borrows, and not only to the famous ones—the Mommsens, the Tissots, the Cagnats, the Perrots—but also to the humble army officers and employees who have done so much for archæology in Africa. On the other hand, when he enters the field of classical literature, we have before us an original thinker familiar with the whole ground *a teneris unguiculis;* and we find here in abundance precisely those personal and independent contributions to the subject which we miss in the other field. Whenever he finds his opportunity to do a bit of pure literature, whether *ex professo*, as in his chapter on African literature, or incidentally, as when he describes some beautiful site like Constantine or Cirta, or where he inserts one of his graceful historical cameos, the tragic death of Sophonisba, or the romantic history of Cleopatra's daughter Selene, or the grewsome duel of Juba and his friend Petreius, he exults in conscious power, and quickens his pace like an old war-horse at the sound of the clarion.

One feels inclined to wonder, or even to regret, that the writer should approach the archæological side of his book in a spirit so humble as to suggest an intentional abstinence from all original work beyond the mere selection of materials and their artistic arrangement. Thus, when he is noting the exceedingly mixed character of the present population of North Africa, he seems to forget what must, nevertheless, have been in his mind, that, long before Tissot or Mommsen, Voltaire had made his *Ramire* say to the African Princess, *Zulime*,

"Je sais qu'en vos climats
Où vingt peuples mêlés ont changé tant d'États," etc.

Again, when, on page 197 of this book, he mentions the curious fact that the municipal officers in Roman Africa paid heavily for their places, and had office thrust upon them often in spite of their best efforts to avoid it, we might expect some reference to the younger Pliny's correspondence with Trajan on a similar state of things in Bithynia, of which the inscription from Miletus, just published in the *Revue de Philologie*, gives such an interesting example. And so, when he speaks of the provincial origin of the cultus of the emperors, we are a little surprised to find him modestly stating as an inference what he might have proved by the authority of the third book of the 'Annals' of Tacitus. But on further examination we see that the author has gauged his own powers with consummate good judgment. It is in the archæological department that Boissier is vulnerable, and he does wisely to rely upon others. His literary bias is itself a hindrance to him, for it inclines him to follow fancy rather than cool judgment. Thus, for example, when, on page 29, he sees in the mausoleum of Juba II. and Cleopatra a combination of Greek and Egyptian architecture and a touching reminiscence of the two nationalities dear to the fascinating daughter of the great queen of Egypt, the sober archæologist will be more likely to see in the monument, as Boissier describes it, just what we might expect *a priori*—a somewhat modified imitation of the mausoleum of Augustus at Rome, of which, to be sure, the precise form is not known to us, but which must have corresponded with this ruin in its general character. Again, when a certain anti-Semitic prejudice leads him (p. 39) to attribute the building of a stronghold like Carthage to the hatred inspired by the Phœnician traders, does he not forget that every nation which has traded with uncivilized countries has found it useful to establish factories and to fortify them against a sudden attack from natives who would rather steal than buy? It is this same somewhat romantic bias that leads our author to seek in the independent spirit of the indigenous Africans an explanation of the fact that no Romance language remains in that province as a memento of the Roman occupation. The parallel cases of South Germany and Britain seem to prove that the true reason lies in the incompleteness of the conquest relatively to the mass of the people speaking substantially the same tongue, especially when that language belongs to a different family from the Latin, as is the case with the Berber dialects.

And, lastly, to dismiss the chapter of fault-finding, this book is not free from a defect too common even in the most serious manuals of archæology, a lack of perspective. If a biographer should jumble together what happened to his subject at times distantly remote, we should be greatly shocked at such a proceeding. But when the average archæologist says that "the Ancients" did thus and so, all ages of antiquity are too often projected, as it were, on one and the same plane, and we cannot even feel quite sure that he has not taken out of Plautus or Terence, as a Roman custom, what is there merely because it is Greek. Thus, on page 93, in reference to the year 42, the *procurator Cæsaris* is spoken of as bearing the official title of *Egregius*, which was certainly true in the age of Constantine and as certainly not true in the age of Caius.

This latest work of Boissier's differs from its predecessors in having a political side. The author justly thinks that, in their efforts to solve the problem of Algerian occupation, the French should endeavor to learn something from the Romans, who, with a force of 27,000 men, held a larger territory than that which the French can barely keep in subjection with an army of 48,000. He shows how those wise old Romans allured the savage by the display of elegant and sumptuous civic architecture at the very outposts of civilization, whereas the towns built in Algeria by the French are conspicuous only for their utilitarian ugliness and sordid vulgarity. He shows from interesting researches of Cagnat how this far-sighted policy, a family of n (the example is taken from the ruined city o Cillium) abandoned their barbarian names for Roman appellations in the course of three generations, the grandfather calling himself Masac, one of his sons Saturninus, and the grandson blooming forth into the full Roman name of Flavius Fortunatus. The author finds in religion one strong reason for the difficulties experienced in so much larger measure by Christian nations in similar endeavors. This is reasonable enough, and the wonder is that the author has made no use of such confirmatory instances as might have been found in the Gentile occupation of Judæa and in the relations of the Romans with the Druids.

The reader will not find in this book a continuous history of the African province. No notice is taken, for example, of the religious troubles of the fourth and fifth centuries, although the author's observations come down to the Vandal conquest, and the Donatist disturbances must have caused much of the existing desolation and may certainly be regarded as a large factor in the success of the Vandal invasion, or indeed as the original cause of it. What there is of history in the book is there for literary purposes; and those episodes alone are made prominent which offer an opportunity for artistic treatment. It is perhaps no longer very high praise to say that Boissier, while he properly trusts Mommsen for his facts, has discovered, like most students of history, that the political bias of the learned Berlin professor makes him an untrustworthy guide beyond the mere verification of facts, even when it is not easy to detect the connection between his conclusions and the underlying prejudice. But we may add that when our author allows himself an original generalization in the historical field, he gives evidence of large views and great synthetic ability.

We have considered this book from the point of view which its title suggests. The literary part will be relished by all readers of taste; but an adequate discussion of it would call for a separate article. There is an index to the volume, and four plans, two of Carthage and two of the Roman city of Timgad (Thamugadi), the ruins of which have been studied with care. These plans are carefully designed, but rudely executed, in marked contrast, for example, with the accurate and elegant maps in Mommsen's 'Roman Provinces'; and, as is usual with the majority of French books, even those issued by the best houses, the volume before us is marred by typographical defects which an American publisher would regard as a disgrace to his name.

McMASTER'S HISTORY.—II.

A History of the People of the United States, from the Revolution to the Civil War. By John Bach McMaster. Vol. IV. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. Pp. xiv, 630, maps.

THE influences of paper issued upon little or no credit were at work in many directions, and the connection is not appreciated by Mr. McMaster. The readiness to take chances was fostered by the facilities of obtaining credit and getting beyond the punishment due to bad faith. Conditions in Europe, where the armies of the Napoleonic wars were being disbanded, led to a great movement in population to America. The rapid rise of communities in the Western country was an immediate result; a secondary effect was the demand for better

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communication between the East and , and a recognition of the political in- e and commercial importance of the Mis- ssippi Valley. If an individual could "cre- ate" wealth by issuing his paper, the State could do the same; and, as the guardian of all, the State was bound to employ its power for the benefit of its citizens. From this followed a wish for the State to undertake what had hitherto been performed by local or individual efforts. Immigration was to be assisted and encouraged by grants of lands; States were to enter into extensive schemes of internal improvement, involving the expenditure of vast sums of money on the betterment of roads and the construction of canals. The Federal Government was to enter into this work, either directly by the construction of post-roads, or indirectly by grants of money to the States. The readiness with which schemes could be floated on paper credit—and even the national loans were paid for by local issues—greatly encouraged those political statesmen who sought to build up local influence upon national bounty. The manufacturers believed their interests to be a proper subject of national care, and in 1816 the first really protective tariff was urged upon Congress.

Mr. McMaster has largely drawn the material for his chapter on this tariff from the "Address of the American Society for the Encouragement of Domestic Manufactures to the People of the United States." This is very much as if the recent bond sale for gold was to be described by the aid of "Coin's" financial untruths, or by the speeches of the extreme advocates of silver. It is unfortunate that, in so important a matter, the author should expose himself to the suspicion of special pleading. The close of a war which was distinctly a commercial war, following closely upon years of trade hampered, and at times almost destroyed, by hostile measures of England and France, would in itself be sufficient to explain an unusual movement of export and of import. The decrees of Napoleon and the British Orders in Council, enforced as they were by blockading fleets, shut in domestic and kept out foreign products and manufactures. Naturally domestic industries arose. These restrictions removed, the tide of trade swelled in both directions; and as if to make good in a single year the long deprivation of markets, merchants, domestic as well as foreign, overtraded enormously. Mr. McMaster draws a harrowing picture of over-importations of British goods into the United States, of the tricks of importers, of the extent and evils of the auction system, and of the dangers threatened to such industries as had sprung into existence or had been encouraged to expand during the war. He points out the losses of the American manufacturer and the American merchant, setting against them the gains of the foreigner. Following his main authority, he believes them to have been the result of a studied policy on the part of England to crush out the manufactures of the United States. He includes a sentence from one of Lord Brougham's speeches to this effect, which has done service in every tariff contest in the United States from that time to 1888, when, though genuine, it disappeared with sundry forged extracts from English papers.

Had the writer looked into any account of the situation of industry and commerce in England at this time, he would have been quick to recognize not only how impossible such a policy was, but how severely the merchants and factors of that kingdom suffered through those very exportations. An expectation of the opening to trade of the continent of Europe had led to overtrading in 1814, and the disastrous effect of the extravagant speculation led to numerous failures in 1814-1816. The same miscalculations were made in the American trade, and exports of manufactures were encouraged by the abundance of labor, by the progressive employment of machinery in nearly every branch of production, and by lower freights and lower insurance, no longer at war risk. That "the bulk of the commodities exported brought very inadequate returns" was the general conclusion of the English exporter. In the United States other conditions favored overtrading. Prices were high, because expressed in paper money; the banks favored speculation, and merchants believed in the existence of an unlimited market for foreign commodities. Miscalculation and inflated credit are sufficient to explain the situation. The plea of the manufacturer was based upon selfishness, and was only a part of the current opinion of the day—that the Government should make good the errors of unrealized hopes. The influence of Pennsylvania upon protection to native industries has been great, and it will not be the first time it has proved sufficient to color historical writing.

A national bank was authorized in 1816 with the hope of introducing some system and order into the currency. This hope could be realized only by crowding out State issues. The Bank of the United States opened its branches in different States and supplied a circulating medium that was redeemable at any branch. It accepted notes of such State banks as promised to redeem their issues in specie, and then demanded their redemption. This brought pressure upon the State banks, and they in turn called in their loans, and so brought the crisis to the individual farmer, who had mortgaged his farm, and merchant, who had traded on credit. A popular outcry against the Bank of the United States vented itself in attempts on the part of State Legislatures to restrict and intimidate this bank in the expectation of neutralizing its efforts.

The long period of paper promises had blunted the general ideas of honesty. Resort was had to stay and replevin laws—measures that aggravated instead of curing the evils complained of, for they struck at the origin of all credit. In the cities the suffering was the most intense, and the subject of pauperism and its causes forced itself on the public notice. Commissions reported a great increase of the poor, and the charitable, in answer to their appeals, opened soup kitchens, gave money and clothes freely, and in the end almost offered a premium on idleness and begging. Foreign immigration was looked at askance. Intemperance was pointed out as the leading cause of pauperism, but the share of gambling, lotteries, and ignorance was recognized. The remedies suggested were many, and among them schools, restrictions of dramshops, and savings banks. A wave of reform passed over the land. The pitiable condition of debtors, whose situation could hardly be made more miserable than it was, and the demoralization of the prison system, in which the corrupting influences more than compensated for any benefit to society from the punishment of the criminal, were fields demanding the best exertions of those interested in the welfare of the community. The cruelties of imprisonment for debt were mitigated, but the idea of reclaiming and reforming rather than punishing the criminal was not yet accepted as the true basis of a penal system. In such a "moral awakening" were established Bible and missionary societies, and the free blacks were to be colonized somewhere without the United States. The contest over the admission of Missouri into the Union brought the people to the realization of a sectional conflict on slavery which filled them with dire forebodings for the future.

So far as the general reader can determine, errors of statement on the part of Mr. McMaster are few. Proper names suffer not a little. Huddy is spelled Huddie, and Conyngham is printed Connyngham. The maps do not correspond with the text. For example, the following differences are shown, the spelling in the text being given first: Rameau and Ramea; Epervier and Epervior; Coosa and Coosee; Talladega and Talladagee. There are some tricks of expression which might be omitted, as they tend to exaggerate or to give a wrong impression. "Swords without number" could hardly have been voted to Perry; nor does a town-meeting give expression to the political beliefs of the population of a State; nor is it true to speak of Liberia as going "steadily forward on a prosperous career."

The errors of method are more notable. In giving to each subject a chapter, the connection of events is destroyed, the continuity of narrative marred, and the relation of cause and effect obscured. The chapters read as if they had been prepared for a magazine—essays on special topics, afterwards thrown into a volume with a slight connecting bond. It may be questioned, too, whether history can be written from the ephemeral productions of the day, such as proclamations and addresses, or the average communications to the daily press. Like a party platform, they are produced for a certain purpose. They constitute an appeal to passion rather than to reason, and, too often concealing the real motives of political agents, are not fit expressions of public feeling. It is true they lend themselves to Mr. McMaster's mannerisms, and enable him to produce a very readable and at times truly novel chapter. But history demands something else. The prominent actor, the leader or moulder of public opinion, is an important feature. Personality is an interesting and a truly vital force, lending a vivacity to the story which no tricks of style can give. With Mr. McMaster the person counts for little. Madison, Monroe, Gallatin, Clay, and other prominent leaders of the day are introduced as puppets; their names occur at intervals, but there is no attempt to analyze their motives or their characteristics. The summaries of their speeches are made in a perfunctory manner, and lose the glitter and force of argument which they have even in the mangled condition in which they have come down. It may be questioned whether Mr. McMaster's work will be accepted in the future on any other ground than for its extensive research and studies of particular incidents. As a history it falls short of what has been done before in this period, and certainly short of what should be demanded in the future.

Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America, etc. By Frank M. Chapman. D. Appleton & Co. 1895. 1 vol., 8vo, cloth, and smaller copies in flexible morocco, pp. xiv, 421, pll. 20, figs. 115.

THIS is far and away the best book of the kind which has appeared in this or any other country for many years; it is easily first, and with a long interval among numerous recent competitors for public favor; it is one which would menace the long-established position of

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Coues's 'Key,' were its scope not restricted to Eastern North America. As indicated on the title-page, it includes artificial keys to the orders, families, and species; descriptions of plumages, nests, and eggs; statements of geographical distribution, breeding ranges, and migrations; brief accounts of haunts and habits; with introductory chapters on the study of ornithology in its scientific, philosophic, economic, and sentimental aspects, and on the identification, collection, and preservation of birds, their nests, and eggs. There is a list of the principal authorities cited, and a good index. The absence of a glossary is explained by the fact that none is needed, for the author uses only words which can be understood by any one who has learned the difference between a bird's head and its tail. "I have not," says he, "addressed an imaginary audience, nor have I given my prospective readers what, theoretically, I thought they ought to have, but what my personal experience with students of birds has led me to believe would meet their wants." In this practical, sensible aim the author has scored a brilliant success; his prescriptions can be taken from cover to cover with the assurance that they will cure any case, short of invincible ignorance, *celere, certe, tute, atque jucunde;* his book is one to be put in the pocket when we go afield for birds, just as we put on a hat and take up the gun.

This Manual will not promote Mr. Chapman to the first rank among American ornithologists, for the simple reason that he is already in that enviable position, fairly won by years of industrious, enthusiastic, well-directed work, both in the closet and in the field; but it will assure his permanent place among the masters of birdcraft, if he never does anything more. The highest qualifications of the technical scientist are often supposed to be incompatible with those of the field-naturalist; and this supposition may be true to the extent that few persons show equal faculties of reflection and observation, or the ability to hold the imagination in the leash of reason. Mr. Chapman is exceptionally well constituted in this respect; he holds his ardor steadfastly, with the result of something about his ornithology which the present reviewer has often called "sweet reasonableness." The work he now gives us is a model of all that a handbook should be, without a single objectionable or even undesirable feature. The fact that it reaches us with all the weight of authority which the author's position in the American Ornithologists' Union can confer upon this ripe fruit of long experience may be an official voucher for its eminent excellence, but that does not weigh a feather in a case of such obvious intrinsic merit. It would make its way in the bird-world as a text-book if it were anonymous. Failing to find anything to criticise on a careful first reading, we deliberately read it through again for typographical errors, without finding any to speak of. The book is not amenable to criticism in any respect; neither does it need any bush; there is not a pin-feather in it.

Mr. Chapman's limitation of himself to an area east of the ninetieth meridian will keep his book out of the "North American" lists, and put it distinctively in the line of "local" avifaunæ; but the region whose birds are treated is still so extensive, and includes so large a proportion of the whole number of persons who are interested in birds in this country, that his *clientèle* can hardly be appreciably affected by the restriction. In its own field it will stand for an indefinite period without a possible rival.

The pivotal point about the book is the idea of ready identification of specimens in hand—and often of birds in the bush—by the system of artificial "keys," without which no book professing to teach ornithology now has much chance of success. Mr. Chapman's keys are so well constructed that they unlock the mysteries with great ease, and lead us speedily to the more detailed technical characters of every order, family, and species—excepting those of the latter which are mere stragglers or accidental visitants, such being only mentioned. Being thus assured of our bird, we are given a biography in brief of each species—and very telling are these pen-and-ink portraits. Besides being true to the life, they are written in great good taste; they show fine feeling which never sinks into sentimentalism, and are dainty without jauntiness. To one so full of his subject as Mr. Chapman the danger of spilling over is immanent; but he always holds himself steadily in hand. Some of these miniature pictures are by other hands; if some seem to suffer by the juxtaposition, we may recall the adage about comparisons. Mr. Brewster, at all events, is Mr. Chapman's peer in this and other respects. Many of the songs of birds are expressed in musical notation, besides the more or less happy attempts to imitate them phonetically in words. This is a matter for which Mr. Chapman is probably more gifted by nature and better equipped by practice than any other ornithologist now seeking public favor. The numerous illustrations are in every way worthy of the text. They are of two kinds. The full-page plates are mostly half-tones, beautifully done; though on the whole the whippoorwill picture, of a different character, is perhaps the best. The small cuts are telling ones, of what may be called the "rough-and-ready" sort, illustrating the particular points in the text which the author wishes to emphasize; every one has thus its own duty to do, in showing up a diagnostic mark of bill, head, wing, tail, or foot. Mr. Tappan Adney is to be congratulated upon his success. All the illustrations are new; one of the most original is that showing on which arm of the cycloidal curve the goldfinch says "per-chic-o-ree" as he flies. The well-considered color-chart is a valuable feature—what Mr. Chapman calls his "mental palette" for putting his tones and shades of plumage into print.

If we seem to have thus dwelt needlessly upon the merits of a book so well able to speak for itself, we may plead the sheer pleasure it gives us to praise it. We imagine that few will lay hold of it without wondering how they ever got along without it.

The Humour of Russia. Translated by E. L. Voynich. With an Introduction by Stepniak. [International Humour Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons.

ONE is somewhat puzzled, at first, over the choice of pieces which are here presented to him as fitly embodying the different types of Russian humor. Assuredly, Von Vizin ought to have been included, and Gogol's 'The Inspector' would have been more comprehensible to the general foreign public, unacquainted with the fine lights and shades of Russian character and customs, than 'A Madman's Diary' and his 'Marriage,' which Stepniak justly praises in the Introduction. Ostrovsky's "Incompatibility of Temper" is sufficiently characteristic, and his "A Domestic Picture" exhibits the Moscow merchant's code of morals as admirably, in a small way, as any of his great series of comedies; but a more celebrated play than the former and a more humorous play than the latter might have been found in his extensive theatre. The truth would seem to be, that the translator has set herself the task of avoiding things which have previously appeared in translation, and things which run beyond a certain length, with the object of affording specimens from as many writers as possible. It is a pity that she did not seize the present opportunity of collecting the very best examples possible, without regard to the conditions just suggested. The pieces to which we have referred possess the universal quality of wit which can be appreciated by all nations, without special initiation into Russian habits of thought and life, whereas it is to be feared that many readers will miss the very delicate shades of the essentially national humor in many, perhaps the majority, of these cases. "Shchedrin's [Saltykoff's]" political satires are well chosen, and much more intelligible to the foreigner than most of his work. Dostoevsky's fantastic tale of 'The Crocodile' furnishes a very plain clue to the fact which the student of Russian humor must always bear in mind, namely, that all *tchinovniki* (officials) and the whole bureaucratic system are lawful, perennial objects of ridicule. Mr. Stepniak modestly admits that his "The Story of a Kopek" is a bit of early work, and, indeed, it is built on the pattern of tales told to small children, and is not readily to be comprehended even by one familiar with Russian ways, though its political drift is plain enough.

Although there is no doubt that a more popular volume might have been prepared, the attentive reader will find these sketches replete with national touches which will well repay his study. The translation is truly remarkable for its accuracy and spirit, and the book is decidedly one which should be added to any collection of Russian literature. If Mr. Stepniak or the translator had superintended the illustrations, the absurdity of the *samovar* as here depicted, and of the deacon clad in a European overcoat and chimney-pot hat, would have been avoided.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbey, Edwin A. The Quest of the Holy Grail. R. H. Russell & Son.
Abraham Lincoln: Tributes from his Associates, Reminiscences, etc. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Bartlett, G. H. Water Tramps; or, The Cruise of the "Sea Bird." Putnams. $1.
Bishop, W. H. The Garden of Eden, U. S. A.: A Very Possible Story. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $1.
Björnson, Bjornstjerne. The Heritage of the Kurts. Lovell, Coryell & Co. $1.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Vols. V. and VI. Macmillan. $6.
Browne, Rev. G. F. Off the Mill: Some Occasional Papers. Macmillan. $1.25.
Burdett's Hospital and Charities Annual. 1895. London: The Scientific Press; New York: Scribners.
Clark, S. C. Pilate's Query. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Courthope, W. J. A History of English Poetry. Vol. I. Macmillan. $2.50.
Dwight, T. F. Critical Sketches of Some of the Federal and Confederate Commanders. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Easel, Jack. Our Square & Circle; or, The Annals of a Little London House. Macmillan. $1.75.
Fearing, Blanche. Roberta: A Novel. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Gibbes, Emily O. Reflections on Paul. C. T. Dillingham. $1.25.
Goth, Amos. The Reign of Lust. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co.
Green, Anna K. Doctor Izard. Putnams. $1.
Gunter, A. C. The Ladies' Juggernaut. Home Publishing Co.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. An Errant Wooing. Century Co. $1.50.
Henderson, W. J. The Elements of Navigation. Harpers. $1.
Howells, W. D. My Literary Passions. Harpers. $1.50.
Hoyt, H. W. The Story of Hunt's Mills. Providence: Snow & Farnham. 50 cents.
Hudson, W. C. Should She have Left Him? Cassell. 50 cents.
Hume, Fergus. The Third Volume. Cassell. $1.
Humphrey, F. P. A New England Cactus, and Other Tales. Cassell. 25 cents.
Jones, Rev. Harry. Fifty Years; or, Dead Leaves and Living Seeds. Macmillan. $1.50.
Kindell's African Market Manual. 1895. London: Mathieson & Sons.

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Kovalévsky, Sónya. Recollections of Childhood. Century Co. $1.75.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. Historical Survey of Pre-Christian Education. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Legras, Jules. Au Pays Russe. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Leland, C. G. Legends of Florence. First Series. Macmillan. $1.75.
Lemcke, Gesine. European and American Cuisine. Appletons. $2.
Lentz, Max. Stifter's Das Heidedorf. American Book Co. 25 cents.
Lesuer, Daniel. A Force d'Aimer. Paris: Lemerre.
Life and the Conditions of Survival. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. $2.
Longus's Daphnis & Chloe. Traduction d'Amyot. Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Bros.
Loti, Pierre. Jean Berny, Sailor. Cassell. 50 cents.
Maspero, Prof. G. Manual of Egyptian Archæology. New edition, revised and enlarged by the author. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. $2 25.
Miller, Ellen, and Whiting, Margaret C. Wild Flowers of the Northeastern States. Illustrated. Putnams. $4.50.
Molesworth, Mrs. Leona. Cassell. 50 cents.
Mooney, Margaret S. Foundation Studies in Literature. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1.25.
Moulton, Prof. R. G. Four Years of Novel-Reading: An Account of an Experiment in Popularizing the Study of Fiction. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 50 cents.
Muir, Prof. James. Agriculture, Practical and Scientific. Macmillan. $1.25.
Mummery, A. F. My Climbs in the Alps and Caucasus. London: Unwin; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Murray, D. C. The Martyred Fool. Harpers. $1.25.
Palmer, Julius A. Again in Hawaii. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Paston, George. A Study in Prejudices. Appletons. $1.
Perry, Bliss. The Plated City. Scribners. $1.25.
Phillips, Claude. Antoine Watteau. [*Portfolio* Monographs.] Macmillan.
Prentice, Dr. Chalmer. The Eye in its Relation to Health. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Prowse, D. W. A History of Newfoundland. Macmillan. $8.
Pugh, E. W. A Street in Suburbia. Appletons.
Rideing, W. H. In the Land of Lorna Doone. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Canadian Guide-Book. Complete in one volume. Appletons.
Savage, P. H. First Poems and Fragments. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.25.
Schallenberger, V. Green Tea. A Love Story. Cassell. 25 cents.
Shaw, W. A. The History of Currency 1252 to 1894. London: Wilsons & Milne; New York: Putnams. $3.75.
Shearman, T. G. Natural Taxation. Putnams. $1.
Snow, C. E. Sister Gratia. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25 cents.
Thomas, Annie. Utterly Mistaken. Cassell. 50 cents.
Tracy, Dr. R. S. Hand-book of Sanitary Information for Householders. Appletons. 50 cents.
Wagner, C. La Vie Simple. Paris: Colin & Cie
Waterloo, Stanley. Honest Money. Chicago: Equitable Publishing Co. 25 cents.
Wood, J. S. Yale Yarns. Putnams. $1.
Wright, Mabel O. Birdcraft: A Field Book of Two Hundred Song, Game, and Water Birds. Macmillan. $3.00.
Wright, Mabel Osgood. The Friendship of Nature. Macmillan. 25 cents.

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